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The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume V. Number 10.

PHILADELPHIA, DECEMBER, 1914

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Topics of State-wide Interest which are Fruitful for Research¹

BY PROFESSOR P. ORMAN RAY, OF TRINITY COLLEGE.

If one were asked to state in a word the most distinctive characteristic of historical writing in the United States during the last two decades, the reply would doubtless be, the exploitation of the history of the West. Historical explorers, prospectors and squatters have discovered so many Comstock lodes and bonanza wheat farms, yielding the richest historical returns, that "the lure of the West" has been well-nigh irresistible to young historical investigators. Graduate students at Eastern institutions of learning have often cast longing eyes toward this Eldorado; and not infrequently have we seen them trekking to some Western university in order to have a larger share in the development of this new historical continent. As we have seen American millionaires bearing home the costliest treasures from European art collections, so we may see the representatives of at least one great Eastern university striving to bring back from the West historical materials for the equipment of a great laboratory for the scientific study of Western history here in the East. Seemingly, almost every nook and cranny of Western history either has been or is being pried into by some eager prospector ready to pre-empt and to stake off what appear to be the most promising" monographic claims. Indeed, one may well doubt whether any other field of American history is at the present time being so systematically and minutely surveyed.

Far be it from the purpose of the writer of this paper to deplore or to disparage "this westward movement" of souls in eager quest of historical materials, for he too has found the lure of the West irresistible. Vast has been the enrichment of our historical literature, and invaluable has been the correction of our historical perspective, resulting from this development of the West as a field for historical study. Some of us, however, have begun to wonder if a reaction is not about due; if, in place of this westward movement of the historically inclined, we may not soon be witnesses of, and possibly participants in, a-back-to-the-East movement. True it is that few, if any, virgin forests or wide expanses of historical prairies or mines of fabulous richness await exploitation here in the East. But it is quite possible that a

more scientific and intensive cultivation of some of the older areas of historical research, a re-occupation of some of the "abandoned farms" of history, and a more thorough and purposeful rummaging in old historical garrets and lumber-rooms, may yield surprisingly rich returns.

On account of these reflections, and especially because this is a gathering of history teachers who, for the greater part of each year, are moored and anchored at Eastern institutions, I have decided to restrict this paper to the consideration of topics which are susceptible of development in connection with the history of the older Eastern States. For all of the topics to be mentioned, I am not certain that sufficient materials are available to make possible a satisfactory monographic treatment. Many subjects could, I suspect, be presented in the small compass of a periodical article more effectively than if expanded into the dimensions of a book. Most of us busy teachers who gladly rise up and call blessed the author of a new historical book are ready to call thrice blessed the author who can compress his book into a periodical

Two promising fields for productive historical work here in the East lie in the twilight zone or borderland of history and political science. One field includes our municipal governments; the other, our State governments. In the first, the greatest needs are for carefully prepared histories of the legal and political relations existing at different periods between State and municipal government; for histories dealing with the causes of, and steps in, the decline of city councils and the rise of the mayoralty; for a history of the spoils system in connection with the municipal governments of our several commonwealths; for a history of the development of municipal functions and services in a given State; and finally, for a historical study of political primaries in cities that exert a State-wide influence, like New York, Philadelphia, Boston and Baltimore.2

In connection with our State governments, we need in each State a history of the various attempts to amend the State Constitution. Such contributions would be especially welcome in States which are now seriously considering a revision of their Constitutions. The expansion of gubernatorial functions and influence, the development of the speakership and com-

¹ For additional topics coming under this general head, see a paper by Professor W. E. Dodd on "Profitable Subjects for Investigation in American History, 1815-1860," and the discussion following in American Historical Association Report (1912).

² See F. W. Dallinger, "Nominations for Elective Offices in the United States" (1897).

mittee system in State legislatures, the rise and decline of State legislatures in popular esteem, the increase in the number of State offices, the different methods of filling such offices,3 a history of the spoils system in connection with State governments, the development of county governments in a given Stateeach of these subjects is deserving of a careful historical survey. An examination of the official proceedings of the various State constitutional conventions will readily serve to suggest other worthy topics in the same field. Articles or monographs dealing with removals or attempted removals from office in the several States,4 and with the history of State legislation which has been declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States, would be useful in connection with present-day political discussions. Beginning with the colonial period in some of the older States where the records are most complete, a study of the statutory and judicial definitions of crimes and of the methods prescribed for their punishment, would be of interest. A history of the pardoning power in each State may also be recom-

The State of Vermont has had three Constitutions, and all three contain provisions which are strikingly similar to, and in some instances duplicates of, provisions in the Pennsylvania Constitution of 1776. A complete and satisfactory explanation of these resemblances has not, so far as I am aware, been published. I desire to call special attention to two institutions provided for in the Vermont Constitutions: one is the executive council associated with the governor, and plainly modeled upon the early executive council in Pennsylvania; the other is the provision for a Council of Censors, which was obviously a copy of the Pennsylvania institution of the same name. I would especially recommend a careful study of the history of these two institutions in Vermont, particularly the history of the Council of Censors, which was not abolished until 1870, eighty years after the disappearance of its prototype in Pennsylvania. Incidentally, may I express the conviction that something remains to be done in narrating the complete history of the Pennsylvania Council of Censors?

For fourteen years, from 1777 to 1791, Vermont came perhaps the nearest of any State in the Union to being literally an independent and sovereign State. A subject of research of the first importance is to be found in the constitutional and political history of the Green Mountain State in those years, including her contest for admission into the Union and her simultaneous flirtation with the English government. It is quite possible that the Canadian and English archives may contain pertinent material hitherto unused.

Entering the field of political history, we find a large number of subjects of State-wide interest awaiting the historical investigator. A new chapter in the history of elections to the United States Senate has

just opened, and it is an appropriate time to commence the history of the chapter which has just closed. Accordingly, I suggest a series of articles on the history of senatorial elections in the several States. Among other subjects which seem deserving of fuller treatment than they have received, the following may be mentioned: Politics in Connecticut and in Massachusetts from about 1750 to the outbreak of hostilities with England; a history of southwestern Pennsylvania in the Revolutionary period, with special reference to the Hannastown "Declaration of Independence";5 Pennsylvania's numerous boundary controversies and their settlement; the dispute between Pennsylvania and Connecticut settlers in the Wyoming Valley, especially the details of the final adjustment of the controversy; the Whiskey Insurrection; the work of different State delegations in the Continental Congresses; also a similar study of the work of each State congressional delegation during the Civil War; and I would add, the early influence of Masonic lodges upon local and State politics, provided one can gain access to Masonic archives.

A careful study of the attitude of the people and officials of New Hampshire, Vermont and Northern New York toward the War of 1812 is needed; and an investigation of political and economic conditions in Pennsylvania during the same period might also be profitable. The early development of the nominating convention has been traced for Pennsylvania,6 but similar studies for other States will be welcomed by students of politics. In the attitude of the various geographic sections and economic interests in Pennsylvania toward Andrew Jackson's "war" upon the Second Bank of the United States, we have, I believe, another topic of State-wide interest fruitful for research. The study of State politics during the Civil War presents another noteworthy field for research. We now have monographs dealing with the politics of New York and Ohio in this period,7 and similar studies for Pennsylvania are now in progress at the University of Pennsylvania and at Columbia University. It is to be hoped that these investigations are the mere prelude to the early publication of a series of monographs dealing with war-time politics in other States.

Another series of political investigations may well go back of the outbreak of the Civil War. We need, for example, careful historical surveys of party politics in each State between 1850 and 1860, which shall give us approximately correct appraisals of the relative effect upon State and National politics of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, the prohibitory liquor law agitation, the Kansas troubles, and the Dred Scott decision. In this connection I would com-

³ For example, "Why the Office of State Treasurer Became Elective in Pennsylvania."

⁴ See Roger Foster's "Commentaries on the Constitution" 633 ff.

⁵ Mr. W. B. Furst, a graduate student at Yale University, is now, I understand, at work on this subject, particularly the Hannastown "Declaration of Independence."

⁶ J. S. Walton, "Nominating Conventions in Pennsylvania," in "Am. Hist. Rev.," II, 262.

⁷S. D. Brummer, "Political History of New York State During the Period of the Civil War" (1910); G. E. Porter, "Ohio Politics During the Civil War Period" (1911).

mend an investigation of the beginnings of the Republican party in Pennsylvania, and also the history of party politics in that State from 1860 to about 1876. Concerning the Tweed Ring in New York City much has been written, but a great deal more may yet be done to bring out fully and clearly the relations existing between the Ring and the "big ' interests of that day, as well as the connection of the Ring with the New York legislature, and the steps which brought about the complete overthrow of the Ring. An investigation along similar lines of the New York Canal Ring and its overthrow under Governor Tilden, as well as a history of the earlier Albany Regency and the more recent Louisiana Lottery, are worth while. It is also quite possible that the history of the anti-Blaine or Independent, alias Mugwump, faction between 1876 and 1884 may deserve special treatment.

To any who are especially interested in political biography I would recommend a Life of General Ira Allen, although much of his biography is interwoven with the history of Vermont as an Independent State, previously suggested; a study of George and De Witt Clinton and of Thurlow Weed as factors in New York politics; of John P. Hale in New Hampshire politics; and of Simon Cameron and Benjamin F. Butler as factors in the politics of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, respectively; lastly, a study of the congressional career of Galusha A. Grow, a Representative from Pennsylvania, and of Justin S. Morrill and George F. Edmunds, long-time United States

Senators from Vermont.

In bringing this paper to a close I shall mention a last group of subjects taken from the field of social and economic history. The economic history of the Champlain Valley, with special reference to transportation, I would urge as being peculiarly deserving of monographic treatment. The political history of Reconstruction in the different States has been or is now being well covered, but comparatively little has been done toward writing the history of the educational and religious problems of that period. Teachers and students of history may also be urged to undertake the history of the colonial ship-building and whale-fishing industries in Massachusetts and Rhode Island, as well as the history of the trade of these colonies with the West Indies before the Revolution; the history of protective duties in colonial Pennsylvania; the history of smuggling in some of the more important maritime colonies, especially in the period just preceding the Declaration of Independence; a history of New York's attempts to regulate immigration between 1815 and 1860; a critical study of State banking between 1832 and 1862, and also of taxation in Pennsylvania and other States;8 and the history of the localization of manufactures in a given State. Finally, I would urge a careful tracing of the historical development in each State of methods of poor relief,9 of labor disturbances, labor organizations and labor legislation, of liquor legislation, and of highway legislation and appropriations, including a study of judicial decisions relating to each of these topics.

Altogether, I have now mentioned over sixty topics or groups of topics which appear to be fruitful for research, and all of which may be developed in connection with the history of our older Eastern States; and this is only a tithe of the subjects discoverable in this section. Enough has been said, however, to indicate that even in "the old and effete East" the fields of historical research are white already to harvest and the harvest truly is great. Happily we may

add that the laborers are by no means few.

Technical History IM

LOUIS BERNARD SCHMIDT, ASSOCIATE-PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN THE IOWA STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS.

The application of the historical and comparative method to the study of present-day economic and social problems has opened up a wide field of usefulness for departments of history in all institutions of higher learning, including the land grant colleges. If it is true in the domain of practical politics and government that present-day problems can be understood only in the light of their historical development, and that we are able to judge of the future only by a knowledge of how the present came to be what it is, it will be recognized for the same reasons that a clear understanding of such problems as public lands, transportation, immigration, banking, currency, taxation, tariff, labor, tenancy, monopoly and foreign relations is impossible except in the light of historical evolution. Any institution of technology like the Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts must necessarily deal with all phases of the general problems of industrial and social efficiency, and therefore with the numerous social and economic questions which are connected with capitalistic industry on the one hand, and capitalistic agriculture on the other. These questions cannot be clearly understood except through the application of the historical method of research and investigation.

In order to adapt the work of the department of history to the needs of different groups of technical students in this instituution, special emphasis is placed on economic and social history. While, therefore, the department offers two general courses: His-

⁸ For additional topics related to Pennsylvania history see the presidential address by Professor H. V. Ames, in "Acts and Proceedings" of the Pennsylvania Federation of Historical Societies (1913), p. 9 ff.

⁹E. W. Capen, "Historical Development of the Poor Law of Connecticut" (1905); W. C. Heffner, "History of Poor Relief Legislation in Pennsylvania, 1682-1913" (1913).

tory of Modern Europe and History of the United States, including work in American Government and Politics, it should be noted that more than half of the courses deal directly with those problems in economic and social science which are of immediate practical interest to Agricultural, Engineering, Home Economics, and Industrial Science students. Such courses as the West in American History, Industrial History of the United States, Economic History of American Agriculture, Industrial History of England, History of Immigration, History of Transportation, and Financial History of the United States are self-explanatory. A brief summary of some of these courses will indicate how the work of the history department has been adapted to the needs of all classes of technical students.

The Industrial History of the United States presents the historical basis of a group of present-day problems of vital interest to Engineers, Home Economics students and Forestry students, and in fact to all students in industrial science except those who are doing their major work along purely agricultural lines. Transportation by rail, water and public highways, money and banking, including the general field of finance, capitalistic manufacturing with the growth of world markets, tariff, monopolies and trusts, conservation, and the numerous problems of social economics with emphasis on wealth distribution and consumption are some of the questions which ought to be understood by students of a technological institution. In short, the professional engineer, the domestic economist, and the forestry expert are constantly in touch with problems which have come down to us from the past, and which can be interpreted only in the light of historical evolu-

The West in American History, a course designed especially for Home Economic students, presents a study of the main features in the settlement and development of the West, and aims to show how the great economic, social and political problems have been evolved in the nation's history and traces the influences of the West on national development. The various social reform movements in our history, the entrance of women into the various business occupations and professions is to be explained largely by the high ideals of democracy and equality which have always found their fullest expression in the West. The woman's suffrage movement, for example, can be understood and its significance fully appreciated only in the light of the study of western history, which is largely the history of the United States.

Consider also for a moment some of the leading topics presented in the Economic History of American Agriculture. The history of the United States has been in a very real sense the history of the transfer of land from public to private ownership. This fact in itself is of great practical significance to students of agriculture who are interested in the most efficient management of the soil under a system of private ownership and cultivation. The disposal of the public lands by sale or gift under numerous acts

of Congress, markets, including the complex problems of distribution and exchange, farmers' organizations with their political, economic and social functions, tenancy, capitalistic agriculture with the rise of land values, rural credits, the rural school with the present-day social center movement, and agricultural education are but a few of the vital problems which the earnest student of agriculture should consider from an historical, as well as from a purely technical point of view.

The more specialized courses like the Industrial History of England, History of Immigration, Financial History of the United States, History of Transportation, History of the United States as a World Power, History of the United States from 1850 to 1880, and Iowa history deal with the same problems reviewed above, but in a more detailed and thorough manner. These courses, and others which may be offered in the future, present the historical basis of numerous questions which are of considerable interest to students of practical affairs.

Finally, it should be noted that in presenting the above list of courses which emphasize economic and social history, a special effort has been made to correlate the work not only with the technical divisions of the College, but also with the various specialized courses given by the Department of Applied Economics and Social Science. Students majoring in applied economics and social science will, therefore, find certain history courses well adapted to their needs and requirements, as shown by the description of the courses of these two departments.

Briefly stated, it may be said that the work of the department of history is intended to provide well arranged courses of instruction for students in all divisions of the college, the chief aim being to give such historical knowledge and training as will enable men and women to think intelligently on public questions and to become useful American citizens.

Leaflet No. 35 of the (English) Historical Association is entitled, "A Brief Bibliography of British Constitutional History." Copies can be obtained from the secretary, Mr. M. B. Curran, 7 S. Square, Gray's Inn, London, W. C., England.

A new critical journal with high ideals is that which was started on the 1st of November, called the "New Republic." If it succeeds in living up to the purposes expressed in the prospectus it will have work enough to keep it busy: "What we wish to do in part is to treat education as the fundamental interest of democracy; to help in working out the questions of the control of industry, the power of labor, and the interests of the consumer in their relation to the scientific organization of business; to fight with modern weapons against poverty, corruption, and feeble good intentions; to translate into terms of action the vision of what cities and States may become; to make criticism an ally of honest artistic expression; to insist that money-getting and reforming, agitation and research, are merely aspects of the desires and ironies of daily life."

The Entrance of History Into the Curriculum of the Secondary School

BY PROFESSOR WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS, NASHVILLE, TENN.

A. The Conditions at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century.

In the thirteenth and twenty-sixth volumes of his "Journal," Henry Barnard published a series of letters from individuals who had received their education during the later years of the eighteenth and the early years of the nineteenth centuries, the purpose of which was to reveal the educational situation of the day. Almost no history is mentioned. "When I was young," said Noah Webster, "the books used were chiefly or wholly Dilworth's Spelling Books, the Psalter, Testament and Bible. No geography was studied before the publication of Dr. Morse's small books on that subject about the year 1786 or 1787. No history was read so far as my knowledge extends, for there was no abridged history of the United States. Except the books above mentioned, no book for reading was used until the publication of the third part of my institute in 1785. In some of the early editions of that book, I instituted short notices of the geography and history of the United States, and these led to more enlarged descriptions of the country. In 1788, at the request of Dr. Morse, I wrote an account of the transactions of the United States after the Revolution, which account fills nearly twenty pages in the first volume of his octavo editions."

Henry K. Oliver spoke of the same period as

"There were no schools systematically graded; there were no blackboards; there were no globes or other ordinary school apparatus in the schools I attended. I never saw a full sized map, nor illustrative picture of any sort suspended against the school walls. . . . The gerund grinding method of which I have spoken, was pursued also at Phillips Academy at Andover and at the Boston Latin School, both of which I attended between 1811 and 1814 when I entered college. From my Latin grammar I proceeded to the Colloquies of Corderius, a book now forgotten, though not by me. Thence I went to Virgil, Cicero and Sallust; translating, scanning, parsing, with unmitigated drill, but with no more knowledge imparted of Roman history, Roman life or Roman manners, than was imparted to me of the manners and customs and language of the Choctaws." 2

Dr. Town found no history in Belchertown, Massachusetts; 3 Joshua Ewing reported nothing but Latir: and Greek at Phillips Exeter; 4 Dr. Darlington was taught no history in southeastern Pennsylvania.5 No mention is made of history in Watson's "Annals of Philadelphia and Pennsylvania." 6 William B. Fowle was not taught history in Boston.7

In his educational survey of 1806, Noah Webster found "science with laboratory work," geography, higher mathematics, modern languages, and even "needlework, drawing, and embroidery," but of history he makes no mention.8

It is not just to assume, however, that no history was taught. When Lewis Cass left Exeter in 1799, it was said that he had made very valuable progress in the study of "Rhetoric, History, Natural and Moral Philosophy, Logic, Astronomy, and Natural Law." The Episcopal Academy, of Philadelphia, is said to have included history in its curriculum in

History, where taught, was generally included within the Latin or geography or reading. The curriculum of the Boston Latin School for October 15, 1789, shows that King's "History of the Heathen Gods" was included in a course on the "Making of Latin." A considerable amount of historical material must have accompanied work in the classics, and under the guidance of an inspiring master excellent results may have been obtained. All, however, must have depended upon the teacher's enthusiasm and his versatility. With the geographies, as shown above by Mr. Webster, a deal of historical material was often included. Seven per cent. of all the texts published between 1800 and 1860, collected and accessible, at present, have geographical titles as well. John Davis, an itinerant English schoolmaster, speaks of his experience in teaching geography in Virginia in the following way:

"The most important knowledge to an American, after that of himself, is the geography of the country. I, therefore, put in the hands of my boys a proper book, and initiated them by attentive reading of the discoveries of the Genoese. I was even so minute as to impress upon their minds the man who first descried land on board the ship of Columbus. That man was Roderic Triana, and on my exercising the memory of a boy by asking him the name, he very gravely made answer, Roderic Random." 11

Historical material was often included in the readers, occasionally used in the secondary schools. Note the following extract from the table of contents of an early popular book of this sort:

On Profane Swear	ring			
The Triumph of				
Female Industry				
The Lap-Dog				
Extract from Mr.	Dawes'	Oratio	on.	

^{1 &}quot;American Journal of Education," Vol. XXVI, pp. 195-6.

² Ibid, Vol. XXVI, p. 217.

³ Ibid, Vol. XIII, pp. 737-8.

⁴ Ibid. Vol. XIII, p. 740.

⁸ Ibid, Vol. XIII, pp. 741-3,

⁶ Ibid, Vol. XIII, pp. 743-5.

^{7 &}quot; Massachusetts Common School Journal," Vol. XII, pp.

^{8 &}quot;American Journal of Education," Vol. XXVI, pp. 200-4.

^{0, 10} E. E. Brown: "The Making of Our Middle Schools,"

^{11 &}quot;American Journal of Education," Vol. XIII, p. 749.

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A list of historical texts, comprising the collection made by Henry Barnard, with certain additions, will be printed later in this series of articles. This list, furnishing an indication of text-book publication, gives evidence of the growing popularity of history.

From this list we find published between 1799 and 1814, seventeen history texts which eventually ran into at least eighty-five editions. There were three texts in United States history, eight in general history, four in ancient history, two in English history and one in ecclesiastical history. This, as a minimum number, indicates a beginning of text-book activity.

To summarize, in the early years of the nineteenth century such history as was taught was usually included with the classics, geography, or reading, particularly with the declamation work. Where it was found as a differentiated subject, it was as a rule either a course in "Roman Antiquities" or a very general sort of "General History," beginning with Adam and Eve. 18

12 Caleb Bingham: "The American Preceptor; being a new Selection of Lessons for Reading and Speaking designed for the use of schools." Boston, 1807. 32d edition.

¹³ Note the table of contents, part one, of Caleb Bingham: "A Historical Grammar or a Chronological Abridgement of Universal History," to which is added an Abridged Chronology of the most remarkable inventions relative to the Arts and Sciences, etc. Designed principally for the use of Schools and Academies. Boston, 1808.

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Eighth Period.

From Cyrus, First King of the Persians, to the Birth of Jesus Christ, 560 Years.

B. How History Entered the Curricula of the Massachusetts Secondary Schools.

The Boston Latin School introduced history as a differentiated subject in 1814.14 While Gould was headmaster, Valpy's "Chronology of Ancient and English History" was used in the second year. 15 The course of study of the advanced class of the classical department of the Phillips Academy at Exeter included in 1818 "elements of ancient history." "Modern History with special reference to the United States," together with ancient history, were at the same time added to the English course. The English Classical High School, founded in Boston in 1821, provided "Ancient and Modern History and Chronology" in the second year, and "History, particularly that of the United States," in the third year. Goodrich's "History of the United States" and Tytler's "Elements of General History" were the books used. Pittsfield Academy adopted history in 1822. Leicester Academy used Whelpley's "Compend of History" in 1824. The Boston Latin School taught "History and Chronology, Constitution of the United States and Massachusetts" in 1826; and in the same year, the Girls' High School put "History of the United States" in the first year, "General History" and "History of England" in the second, and "History of Greece and Rome" in the third.16

Of all the texts and editions of texts published during this period, 1814-1827 (see appendix), over one-fourth (fourteen texts and thirty-three editions)

came from Massachusetts.

The famous law of 1827 gave history an important place in the high schools. It provided that:

"... every city, town or district, containing over five hundred families, or householders, shall be provided with such teacher or teachers for such term of time as shall be equivalent to twenty-four months, for one school in each year, and shall also be provided with a master of good morals, competent to instruct, in addition to the branches of learning aforesaid (i.e., orthography, reading and writing, English grammar, geography, artithmetic and good behavior), the history of the United States, bookkeeping by single entry, geometry, surveying, and algebra, ... and in every city, town, or district containing four thousand inhabitants, such master shall be competent in addition to all the aforegoing branches, to instruct the Latin and Greek languages, history, rhetoric and logic." 17

The most important provisions of this law were not in force from 1840 to 1848 and from 1850 to 1857. It nevertheless has great significance for our purposes. It shows that history had demonstrated its importance by 1827. It was the basis of reports as to studies pursued in the high schools during subsequent years. Three such high schools were established by 1820, eighteen by 1840, forty-seven by 1850, and one hundred and two by 1860.

14 E. E. Brown: "The Making of Our Middle Schools," p.

15 Ibid, p. 232.

16 A. J. Inglis: "The Rise of the High School in Massachusetts," pp. 138 and 301.

¹⁷ Quoted from A. J. Inglis, op. cit., p. 28. From "Laws of Massachusetts," January Session, 1827. Chapter CXLIII, Sections 1, 19, 21.

No complete high school returns are available, but the School Returns of Massachusetts from 1837 to 1841 show the courses offered in all the schools of the State which returned reports. This gives an indication of the status of history.

TABLE I

Towns	Claiming	to	Offer	Subjects,	1837-1841 19
-------	----------	----	-------	-----------	--------------

1834	1837	1838-9	1839-40	1840-1
Towns Reporting 261	294	298	301	304
U. S. History 64	209	177	178	167
Other History 29	94	78	93	62
Algebra 3		69	93	104
Latin 3	4	11	21	16
Natural Philosophy . 24	66	150	170	181

The fluctuations in the statistics from year to year correspond with the changes in the statutes. History compared favorably with the other subjects of the time.

By 1861 history held an important place in the curriculum. Of sixty-three high schools reporting at that date, fifty taught "General History," thirty-nine "History of the United States," twenty-three "Ancient History," sixteen "Modern History," thirteen "English History," four "Mediaeval History," two "French History," one "History of Massachusetts," and one "History of Connecticut." All of these schools taught algebra and Latin.

Not only was history included in the curriculum by many high schools, but pupils elected it freely.

In 1842, Horace Mann made a survey of the pupils enrolled in the various courses. He reported as follows:

"During the last year I have obtained returns from almost every Public School in the State, respecting the number of scholars who are engaged in studies above the elementary or statutory course prescribed for the lowest grade of our schools. The result is as follows: 19

Scholars	studying	History of the United States	10,177
Scholars	studying	General History	2,571
Scholars	studying	Algebra	2,333
Scholars	studying	Bookkeeping	1,472
Scholars	studying	Latin	858
Scholars	studying	Rhetoric	601
Scholars	studying	Geometry	463
Scholars	studying	Human Physiology	416
Scholars	studying	Logic	330
Scholars	studying	Surveying	249
Scholars	studying	Greek	183

Such data describing the condition in the State as a whole, are especially significant when it is considered that the law of 1827 was not in effect at the time.

Of 247 pupils in the high school at Northampton in 1837, 89 elected history, with 56 in astronomy and 45 in Latin as the next most popular subject. Similarly in Haverhill, in 1842, of 72 students, 26 took history, 17 Latin and 14 algebra. Of the 213 students attending the high school in Worcester in 1846, 96 took Latin, 70 history and 38 algebra. Lowell,

in 1847, showed of 185 students, 87 in Latin classes, 70 in bookkeeping, and 50 in history. In the high school at Newburyport, in the same year, 126 out of 207 pupils studied history, with 72 in natural philosophy and 49 in algebra. The following table is an expression of these data in percentages:

TABLE II 20

Percentages of Total Enrollment in Classes in

	II ioiti y
Northampton,	1837 32.5%
Haverhill,	1842-3
Worcester,	1846 32.9%
Lowell,	1847 27.0%
Newburyport,	1847 60.9%

These are, to be sure, but scattered instances. No complete figures are available. In estimating the relative popularity of certain high school subjects in 1850 and 1860, Dr. Inglis studied certain groups of schools, the statistics for which are available. Inasmuch as the total enrollment is often omitted, he has taken algebra as a base, and compared with it the relative attendance upon other subjects. The following table is an excerpt from his results:

TABLE III 21

Ware (1850-1) Mark	Roxbury (1850) lehead (1850)	Plymouth (1	850) Lynn (1850) Il (1851)
Springfield (1860) Danvers (18	Haverhill (1860) 60) Millbury	Randolph (1860)	(1860) Lynn (1860) Plymouth (1861)
Subject:		1850	1860
Algebra		100	100
			200
Natural	Philosophy	194	81
Latin		139	167

In Springfield High School the enrollment in history classes for the years 1855 to 1861 comprised 71.4 per cent. of the entire student body.

History, therefore, entered the curriculum of the secondary schools of Massachusetts early in the nineteenth century. Through legislative enactment it gained a firm hold, and by the time of the Civil War had become a portion of the "core" of the curriculum.

C. How History Entered the Curriculum of the Secondary Schools of New York.²²

On May 2, 1791, Erasmus Hall Academy received as a portion of its share of books from the Regents of the University of New York, the following historical works: ²³

²³ Willis Boughton: "Erasmus Hall," Teachers' College, 1902, pp. 26-7. It will be noted that frequently in early references to texts that inaccuracies exist in spelling. For instance, Roberts' "Charles V," probably refers to Robertson's "Charles V."

¹⁸ A. J. Inglis, op. cit., p. 75.

¹⁹ Massachusetts: "Sixth Annual Report of the Board of Education," 1843, p. 55.

²⁰ A. J. Inglis, op. cit., p. 88.

²¹ A. J. Inglis, op. cit., pp. 89-90.

²² The materials for this investigation are gathered largely from the "Reports of the Regents of the University to the Senate of the State of New York." Prior to 1802 these appear in the Journals of the Assembly. From 1802 to 1818 they are included in the Journals of the Senate. From 1819 to 1824 adequate reports are missing. Following the year 1825 separate publications were made, which are easily available.

Roberts' "America," 3 vols.
Roberts' "Charles V," 4 vols.
Hume's "England," 8 vols.
Ramsay's "American War," 2 vols.
Rollins' "Ancient History," 10 vols.
Voltaire's "Universal History," 4 vols.
"History of New York."
Gordon's "American War."

With such books in the school library, some work in history must have been pursued. Yet no mention is made of differentiated work in the reports. For instance, in 1802 the report for Erasmus Hall is as follows:

whom fifty-four are lads and young gentlemen, and thirty-four are girls. Of the former, thirty-four are engaged in the study of languages, the practical branches of mathematics, geography and English grammar, the rest are employed in studies of an inferior and preparatory nature." 23a

The second early indication of historical study in the New York Academies comes from Dr. Thomas Hun, who incidentally remarked that he had used Adams' "Roman Antiquities" when he attended Albany Academy in 1818.²⁴ Yet for the same year the complete report as to studies pursued was:

Total Number of Students	2,381
Reading and Writing	
English Grammar and Geography	823
Mathematics	264
Latin and Greek	503
Logic and Belles Lettres	
Moral Philosophy	21
Natural Philosophy	22
Modern Foreign Languages	19 25

Since indications of historical work are in evidence, and since no direct mention is made in the early reports, the history taught was probably included within the reading, geography, or the classic lan-

guages.

In 1825, eleven out of the thirty-three academies reported work in "history." Following that date the number of schools to adopt the new subject constantly increased, differentiations within the field itself were gradually introduced, and, although there was no State law to compel adoption, the development was simultaneous with that of Massachusetts.

The progress of thirty-five years is shown in the following table: $T_{ABLE\ IV}^{26}$

Number of Types * of History Taught, 1825-1860

Date	Total Schools	Schools Teaching History	Types	Types per School
1825	 . 33	11	11	0.33
1826	 . 33	14	16	0.48
1827	 . 43	37	51	1.18
1830	 . 56	48	86	1.54
1832	 . 62	48	87	1.40
1834	 . 63	62	151	2.40
1847	 . 155	141	287	1.80
1860	 . 192	178	473	2.46

The number of academies increased 600 per cent. in thirty-five years. Eleven schools offered work in history in 1825, one hundred and seventy-eight in 1860. Eleven separate courses of history were given

in 1825, an average of one in every three schools; four hundred and seventy-three courses were offered in 1860, practically five for every two schools.

The progress of differentiation of courses, and in introduction of new types of history, indicated above, is further analyzed in Table V.

Variety of History Courses Offered in New York
Academies, 1825-1860

Date	General History	U. S. History	Roman Antiquities	Constitution, Gov't and Law	Ecclesiastical History	Biblical Antiquities	Chronology	History of New York	History of England	Greek Antiquities	
1825	 11										
1826	 14			2							
1827	 36	12	1	2							
1830	 44	29	8	5							
1832	 38	34	6	8			1				
1834	 63	45	20	15		2	4	2			
1847	 122	98	18	32	4				13	12	
1860	 121	164	73	46						59	

History first entered the curriculum of the New York academies at an unknown date, probably before 1825, although not so reported. In the first reports it is merely called "history." In 1826, work in "Constitution of New York and of the United States" was instituted in Utica Academy. In 1827, "United States History" and "Roman Antiquities" were reported. In 1832, "Chronology" was added. In 1834, "Biblical Antiquities," "History of New York" and "Greek Antiquities" were included. "English History" and "Ecclesiastical History" were taught by 1847.

New schools were constantly being founded, which at first were poor in resources, with narrow curricula and few students. These institutions, of comparatively small importance, have undue weight in the treatment above. The tables, as given, show gross totals, but they do not indicate the actual influence on the pupils. A small school without history, coun-

terbalances a large school with history.

The statistics in regard to the exact enrollment of the history classes are not available. The reports give only the courses offered, and the total attendance at each school. To approximate the situation, we must use these data as best we may.

24 D. Murray: "History of Education in New Jersey," p. 54

25 New York: op. cit., Session 41, 1818, p. 320.

26 For purposes of simplification of data the 39th, 40th, 41st, 44th, 46th, 48th, 61st and 74th Annual Reports of the Regents were selected. These deal with the years 1825, 1826, 1827, 1830, 1832, 1834, 1847 and 1860.

*Type in this connection means a type of history taught. For instance, a school teaching general, American and English history would be counted as giving three types. "Subdivision" or "branch" would do nearly as well. There seems to be no word expressing this idea.

^{23a} New York: "Report of the Regents of the University to the Senate of New York," State Senate Journal, Session 25, 1802, pp. 112-14.

It is possible to isolate those schools which offered no history at a given date, determine their enrollment, and arrive at the number of pupils who attended schools where no history was taught. Through similar calculation the number of pupils who attended schools where history was offered can be secured. Such an analysis, expressed in percentages, is given in Table VI.

Table VI
Percentages of Pupils Attending Schools Where
History Was Taught

	History Taught	History Not Taught
1825	38.80%	61.20%
1826	48.00%	52.00%
1827	91.75%	8.25%
1830	\$8.30%	11.70%
1832		13.37%
1834	99,40%	0.60%
1847	94.30%	5.70%
1850	95.00%	5.00%

Thirty-eight and eight-tenths per cent. of all the academy students in regular attendance in New York State in 1825 attended schools in which history was taught. In 1860 95.0 per cent. attended such schools. Consequently, in 1825, 61 per cent. of all secondary school pupils could not have taken history in school. By 1860 only 5 per cent. could be so classed.

A further analysis is possible. Treating the material in a similar way, the number of pupils may be determined, who attended schools where "general history" or "United States History" in any special branch was given. Such an analysis appears in Table VII, and gives an indication of the importance of the various types of history taught.

Table VII

Percentages of Pupils Attending Schools Where
Various Branches of History Were Taught

Date	No History	General History	United States History	Roman Antiquities	Constitution, Law, and Government	Ecclesiastical History	Biblical Antiquities	Chronology	History of New York	History of England	Greek
1825	619	395									
1826	52%	484									
1827	84	56%	35%	6%	8.24						
1830	12%	83%	61%	16%	17%						
1832	134	664	67%	11%	27%			2%			
1834	.6%	99%	71%	36%	41%		46	6%	6,6		
1847	7.7%	85%	70%	14%	25%	3%				13%	8/1
1860	5.0%	71%	88%	35%	24%						30%

Table VI and Table VII reveal more closely the actual situation of the time. The growing importance of United States History as compared with general history, hidden on the earlier tables, is now clearly revealed.

It is impossible to determine the exact proportion of these pupils who actually attended history classes. The data are not available. In Massachusetts, at the same time, Dr. Inglis found that of 951 pupils in five high schools, 361 actually elected history. This is

37.9 per cent. Were we to assume a similar election by one-third of the pupils in the New York Academics, the result would be represented as in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII

Approximate Number of Pupils Studying History, 1825-1860, Supposing that New York Pupils Elected History as Freely as in Massachusetts, 1837-1817

	2000	ava									
Date		%	% of Pupils				Approximate Number				
1825.	About	12%	er	140	pupils	out	of		(Aver		
1826.	About	16%	or	339	pupils	out	of				6 months)
1827.	About	30 %	or	388	pupils	out	of	1,292.			6 months)
1830.	About				pupils						4 months)
1832.	About	28%	or	768	pupils	out	of	2,742.	(No.	for	4 months)
1834.	About	33%	OF	1,214	pupils	out	of	3,679.	(No.	for	4 months)
								13,863.		for	4 months)
1860.	About	32%	OF	7,221	pupils	out	of	22,567.	(No.	for a	months.)

These statistics are only suggestive. They are cited, in the absence of the exact data, as indicative of the conditions of the times.

In the 48th, 61st and 74th Reports of the Regents of the University to the Senate of New York State, are included lists of the various text-books in use in the several schools. Such a list gives another approach to the determination of the progress in the introduction of history. A brief summary of the reports is given in Table IX.

TABLE IX

Number of Texts Used in Schools in New York in Various Branches, 1834, 1847 and 1860

General Subject Used in	1834	1847	1860
Constitution, Government, Law.	14	30	45
General History	65	169	163
United States History		101	177
English History		12	6
History of New York	1	0	0
Roman Antiquities		18	75
Greek Antiquities	0	11	65
Ecclesiastical History	0	4	
	152	345	525

The prevalence of the text-book method and added confirmation of work in history are brought to light in this table. In 62 schools teaching history in 1834, 152 text-books were used, an average of 2.5 texts per school. In 1847, in 141 schools teaching history, 345 selections of texts were made, an average of 2.4 different texts per school. In 1860, 178 schools selected 525 texts, or an average of 2.9 per school.

This study of the early progress of history in the New York schools of secondary grade is a summary of the available statistics upon the subject. It deals, not with a few scattered schools, but with a great state as a whole.

In thirty-five years, history had advanced from an insignificant place, as an unimportant concomitant of geography and Latin, to an independent place in the curriculum in many schools.

D. Scattered References to History in the Curriculum of Secondary Schools of the United States.

The School Commission of Vermont recommended Goodrich, Hale, Whelpley and other United States

^{*} Not specifically reported in 1860, but probably taught.

history texts for schools in the year 1828.²⁷ Warren Academy, in Rhode Island, taught history in 1834.²⁸ Superintendent Pierce, of Michigan, reported in 1836, as follows: ²⁹

"It is important that the rising generation be well instructed in the history of their own country; those who are to be our future guardians of our free government should be made acquainted with the toil and suffering which it cost to establish the liberties which they enjoy. In perpetuating the example which our country offers to the world, that man is capable of self-government, it is vitally important that means should be afforded in the common schools, in acquiring a sound knowledge of the principles and acts of the revolution, of the cause and consequence of independence. A history, every instance of which tends to inspire a reverence for the institutions of our country, ought to be familiar 'as household words' to those on whose intelligence and patriotism the future hopes of the republic are based." (Hon. A. C. Flagg.)

In Pennsylvania, the conditions in the academies were rarely subjects of report. In the Fourth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools, the curriculum of each of twenty academies is given. Three make incomplete reports, sixteen give no history, and Erie Academy alone reports history as a subject taught. This indicates that only 60 out of 1,188 secondary school pupils of Pennsylvania attended schools where history was given as a portion of the regular work in 1837. The superintendent also reports various texts as in use in the schools. The small number and the crude spelling indicate the unfamiliarity of such works to the people of the time.

TABLE X

Number of Texts Used in Such Pennsylvania Districts as Reported in 1837

W	Number
Texts	Reported
Cobb's Spellers	319
English Readers	291
Pike's Arithmetic	133
Grimshaw's United States	32
Hale's	30
Goodrich's	14
Welby	8
America	2
Greece	1
Rome	
Frost's	1
Parley's United States	1
Hume's History of England	1
Rollin's Ancient	1

The Central High School in Philadelphia opened with "history" in its course in 1838.³¹ Lancaster, Pennsylvania, High School taught history in the same year.³¹ "Mrs. Roger A. Pryor studied Gold-

smith's Greece in a Southern Female Seminary in 1840." ³² Smithfield Seminary taught history in 1845. ³² History began to be taught in Indiana before 1850. ³¹ The University Grammar School in Providence gave history in 1851. ³¹ Hartford High School had a four years' history course in 1853, "so it probably entered the curriculum a number of years before." ³¹ General history was studied in Defiance, Ohio, in 1853, ³¹ and when the Chicago High School was opened in 1856, Weber's "Universal History" was used. ³¹

It seems highly probable that the interest in history came more slowly in the States other than Massachusetts and New York. These instances give just a little clue to the fragmentary condition of the teaching of the subject.

E. Summary of Historical Text-books Published Before 1860.

The text-book, from the earliest days of history teaching in our secondary schools, has been the chief source of material for work in the class-room. Were there available a complete list of all text-books published, with an accurate account of the number and date of subsequent editions, there would be at hand a reliable guide to the progress and popularity of the subject.

The closest approximation to such a compilation is the list given in Barnard's Journal, Volumes XIII, XIV and XV. This list contains all the text-books which Henry Barnard could account for published prior to 1860. It is arranged alphabetically according to the authors, and contains books of all subjects. With this as a basis, C. A. Jacquith at the University of Chicago compiled a list of historical texts, Another list was compiled by the author, working independently. The two lists were then compared, corrected and certain additions made, where new texts or new editions of old texts were found.

This list is given complete in the appendix, a summary of which is found in Table XII.

TABLE XIV.

Summary of Texts Published or Used in the United States Before 1860

The table reads as follows: Before 1801 there were published two texts in United States history, which eventually ran into three editions; five texts in General History, which eventually ran into nineteen editions, etc., etc.

Date	U. S.		General		Ancient		English		Misc.		Total	
	Texts	Editions	Texts	Editions	Texts	Editions	Texts	Editions	Texts	Editions	Texts	Editions
Before 1801	2	3	5	19	1	1	0	0	1	1	9	24
1801 - 1810	2	6	7	21	2	3	0	0	0	0	11	30
1811 - 1820	3	3	13	30	6	41	3	48	0	0	25	122
1821 - 1830	20	111	18	42	13	29	2	2	5	6	58	190
1831 - 1840	19	59	15	69	3	3.	2	2	2	2	41	135
1841 - 1850	23	45	20	31	16	42	4	5	50	11	72	134
1851 - 1860	24	26	23	38	19	33	12	14	11	14	89	125
Not dated	14	14	13	13	18	18	5	5	5	5	55	55
Total	107	267	114	263	78	170	28	76	33	39	360	815

³² C. A. Jacquith, op. cit., p. 13.

²⁷ C. A. Jacquith, "The Development of History Teaching in the United States up to the Civil War," p. 22. University of Chicago.

²⁸ C. A. Jacquith, op. cit., p. 13.

²⁹ Michigan, "Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction," 1837, pp. 16-17.

³⁰ Pennsylvania, "Fourth Annual Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools," pp. 71-8.

⁸¹ C. A. Jacquith, op. cit., p. 14.

In the original list each text is placed according to the time of its publication, and under the same date, the number of editions to which it subsequently ran. The 815 editions of 360 texts shown above, therefore, represent only a fraction of the actual textbook activity of the day.

F. History in the College Entrance Requirements.

The college entrance requirements are a good indication of the contents of the curriculum of the secondary school. At the time of the adoption of the requirement in a given subject, either there is sufficient demand upon the part of the schools to compel its inclusion, or there is a sufficiently high valuation placed upon the subject by the college, to force the secondary school to take it up. The first case indicates popularity of the subject, the second points to its immediate inclusion in the high school curriculum. In either case, the college entrance requirement reveals the curriculum of the high school.

In 1847 both Harvard and Michigan added history to their entrance requirements.33 Harvard required the reading of Worcester's "Elements of History." Michigan wished "Grecian History to the Time of Alexander the Great and Roman to the Time of the Empire." 34 Cornell added "History" in 1868, and Michigan "History of the United States' in 1870, "due, doubtless," says Dr. Broome, "to the feeling of patriotism at the close of the Civil War." 35 In 1869-70 the requirements at six representative colleges were: Yale, Princeton and Columbia, no history at all; 36 Harvard, Smith's "Smaller History of Greece" or Sewell's "History of Greece;" Cornell, Roman History (the first half of Smith's "Smaller History") and Greek History (the first ten chapters of Smith's "Smaller History"); 37 and Michigan, which required "An outline of Roman History from the foundation of the city to the battle of Actium, of Grecian History from the beginning of the Persian War to the death of Alexander, and the History of the United States to the close of the Revolutionary War." 28

Before the Civil War some slight recognition of history had been made by the colleges. It came, however, only after progress had been made in Massachusetts and New York.

G. History in the Early Normal Schools.

The content of the curricula of the early normal schools is only an indirect indication of conditions in the high schools. The teachers were trained largely for elementary work. The high school was not directly influenced. History, however, was generally recognized as a necessary portion of the future teacher's equipment. This points to a growing recognized.

nition of its value. In 1834, the legislature of the State of New York provided for classes for the training of teachers in certain of the academies of the State. History was considered of such importance as to be required as one of the twelve studies. "The history of the United States is so essential," says the Report of the Regents, "that it may justly be treated as a distinct branch of study." 40 The following books were recommended for these classes:

Texts:

Irving's Columbus (abridged). Goodrich's U. S. History (abridged). Whelpley's General History. Tytler's General History. Worcester's General History.

Reference Books:

Irving's Life of Columbus. 8vo. Marshall's Washington. Morse's America. Bev. Botta's America. Spark's American History.

In Massachusetts, in 1838, the first public normal school was founded, and in the curriculum as reported by Horace Mann, secretary of the Board of Education, we find, "Constitution and History of Massachusetts and of the United States" as one of the twelve studies.41 New York followed in 1844 with a normal school in which provision was made for "History and Reading alternately." 41 History was one of seven departmental subjects in the normal school which Philadelphia founded in 1848. "Review of Geography and History of the United States, and instruction in the History of America, with contemporaneous History of England" seemed to be the plan of work of the department.41 Connecticut, in 1849; 41 Michigan, in 1849; 41 Boston, in 1852; 41 Pennsylvania, in 1857; 41 Illinois, in 1858; 41 Wisconsin, in 1867; 41 and Rhode Island, in 1871,41 all include work in history as a necessary portion of the training of the teacher. Maryland Normal School, alone, founded in 1865, seems to have given no place

H. Conclusion.

By the time of the Civil War, history had gained an important place in the curriculum of the secondary schools of New York and Massachusetts, the leading States of the Union in educational matters. Some form of history was taught in almost every secondary school of each State. In Massachusetts we know that pupils elected it freely. With small beginnings during the early years of the century, rapid development followed the "era of good feeling," and in the thirty-five years following, history gained practically its present standing, in the high schools and academies.

³³ E. E. Brown, op. cit., p. 232.

³⁴ E. C. Broome: "A Historical and Critical Discussion of College Entrance Requirements," p. 45.

³⁵ Ibid, p. 45.

³⁶ Ibid, pp. 49-50.

⁸⁷ Ibid, p. 51.

as Ibid, p. 51.

³⁰ United States, "Report of the Bureau of Education," 1888, I, pp. 226-9.

⁴⁰ New York, op. cit., 1835, p. 95.

⁴¹ United States, op. cit., 1888, I, pp. 284-292.

The progress was not entirely confined to New York and Massachusetts. The evidence of the textbooks, of the normal schools, and of the college entrance requirements, together with the scattered instances given, indicate that slow progress was being made everywhere. Certainly history had become sufficiently common in curricula to indicate that the following chapters are not a mere compilation of exceptional cases.

WHY I LEFT THE FARM.

My excuse for writing this article is to point out to teachers in the country how they may help to keep their boys on the farm.

My early education was gotten in a typical country school of twenty-five years ago. A man taught the winter term, while the spring and fall terms were taught by ladies, usually a different one each term. The winter term was four months long and the other two were each of two months' duration. I never had a teacher whose home was in the country nor who had any interest in agricultural affairs. Some of them boarded "around," others boarded at one farm for five days, while most of them stayed at home in nearby town or city.

Naturally, we were influenced by these teachers to their ways of thinking and living. Their fathers and brothers were nice clothes when they drove out after our teachers on Friday afternoons. We were told about the advantages gained by living in town. The life of the storekeeper, the lawyer and the railroad ticket agent were pictured as ideal. Lots of leisure at the end of a day's work, fine clothes, good sidewalks and crowds of people always at hand, made us feel that the country was all one continuous round of chores, rubber boots, mud and lonesomeness.

Never once did my country school teacher ask me any questions relating to my farm life and experiences. If we had had a Babcock milk tester in our schoolhouse, and our arithmetic lesson had been based on the milk sheet and individual cows, the dairy farm would have made a strong appeal to us. We were in a dairy district, and butter was one of the chief products.

Opening heavy, clumsy gates and doors with poor hinges was one of the crosses of my early life. If I had been taught some of the ways to build a handy gate, instead of partial payments and equation of accounts, my love for the farm would not have waned. A course in manual training, teaching us how to make milking stools, feed boxes, boot jacks and fence lots would have made life much more agreeable to all of us country lads.

My country school teachers never said to me, "When you come to school to-morrow bring some soil from your father's field where he said he could not get a catch of clover, and we will test it and find out what is the trouble." Or, "Bring some of your seed corn and we will start our seed tester and base our arithmetic lesson on the results we get."

Later, when I went to high school, I never had any botany teacher ask me to make a collection of weeds found on my father's farm, and then give us instructions for eradicating them. She never told us how to spray our trees, vines and vegetables to kill the various blights, insects and other pests. I was never taught how to bud, graft and prune

fruit trees.

My physiology teacher never taught me that both man and beast require a balanced ration in order to get the most out of their food allowance. In college I was taught how to assay gold and silver ore, but not a word was said to me about analyzing a soil or stock food. We were given nothing about the chemistry of fruits, soils and fertilizers. We dissected a starfish, crawfish and clam in zoology, but not a word was said about judging a dairy cow or improving a herd of hogs.

In conclusion, it is easy to see why I saw nothing interesting in an agricultural career. If my teachers had taken just a little time to show me that the old farm offered most tempting problems in botany, zoology, chemistry and sociology I should never have left the farm when I graduated from college. Teachers, if you happen to have a country boy in your classes, do your best to show him that he can fill a more important place in the world as an independent farmer than as a dweller in some crowded city.—A. C. Morris in "School News."

SCHOOL AND CIVIC LEAGUES IN VIRGINIA.

In Virginia there are 700 school and civic leagues organized in the country districts by the Co-operative Education Association, which is a citizens' organization working in conjunction with the State Department of Education.

A school and civic league is "a social club, school betterment association, and chamber of commerce set down in a country neighborhood, and holding its meetings in the schoolhouse. Officers are elected, meetings are held monthly or fortnightly, and the teacher is a leading spirit in all activities." It is a means of community education for practical citizenship adapted to rural conditions and needs.

In addition to musicals, spelling bees, and other social activities, discussion and debate of public questions, primarily of local interest, occupy the meetings. The Cooperative Education Association sends to each league program on such questions as health, good roads and better farming. A home reading course has been established, based on a text-book on some rural subject, and supplemented by bulletins from the several State departments and from the College of Agriculture. Upon the completion of the course, members are awarded certificates.

The civic training afforded by the leagues comes largely, however, through activity in behalf of better community conditions. One league last year raised \$2,500 for the improvement of the roads leading to the school, and this year the good roads meeting held in a one-room school started a movement for an automobile road over 100 miles in length.

The improvement of the school itself is, of course, one of the chief interests of the leagues. In 1912-1913 they collectively raised \$65,000, which was expended for libraries, pictures, pianos, window shades and other improvements.

In a sparsely settled section of Charles City County, which until a year ago had no school facilities, a league was formed, an old farm building was rented and furnished with a few chairs and a table, and the school trustees were requested to supply a teacher. Interest increased, and finally a model one-room school building was erected, partly by public funds and partly by money raised by the league. Many high schools in Virginia have been built in just this way.

The Co-operative Education Association maintains an office in Richmond, issues many bulletins, and employs two field workers. Twenty thousand citizens of Virginia are members of these organizations, which means that public-spirited women, professional men, and leading farmers are being apprised of the needs for school and community improvement and of the methods of meeting them.

From the annual report of the association, 1913-1914:
"The association represents the citizen at work for the

(Continued on page 328.)

A Side Light on the War of 1812

BY MOSES W. WARE, THE MORRISTOWN SCHOOL, MORRISTOWN, N. J.

The causes of the war between England and America in 1812 may be set forth as an outgrowth of the disturbed political conditions which prevailed in Europe during the "Napoleonie Era." Napoleon's "continental system" produced retaliatory measures on the part of England, which were particularly distasteful to the mercantile interests in America. But the English "Orders in Council," which had proved so disastrous to the carrying trade of the United States, were rescinded before the news of the declaration of hostilities by Congress had reached England. The elimination of this grievance, however, was acceded to more for the purpose of reconciling party differences in England, than with a view to propitiating America.1 It was a step in the direction of peace unattended by the motives of peace.2 There remained, then, besides the minor differences which should have been settled through the customary diplomatic channels, the question of impressment, i.e., the right claimed by England of stopping American ships on the high seas and searching them for English seamen in order to procure crews for her vessels of war. In the British declaration of January 10, 1813, it was specifically stated that the object of impressment was to secure to Great Britain the naval services of her own subjects. But all overtures of the United States extending from 1792-1813 offering other means to secure this end were always rejected. Many of these proposals, very liberal in character, would undoubtedly have proved as effectual as impressment.3 Whatever the professions of the British government may have been in this relation, it is certain, that representatives of all the leading European nationalities were forced to serve on English vessels. On this point Mr. Dallas wrote in 1814: "The excuse for 'partial mistakes and occasional abuse' when the right of impressment was practised towards vessels of the United States is, in the words of the Prince Regent's declaration, 'a similarity of language and manners;' but was it not known, when this excuse was offered that the American, the Swede, the Dane and the German, that the Frenchman, the Spaniard and the Portuguese, nay, that the African and the Asiatic had been equally with the American citizen and the British subject, the victims of the impress tyranny?" 4 The insistence on this right, so inconsistent with the Anglo-Saxons' ideals of freedom, left to the United States no alternative but war. Yet the war did not settle this question, for in the Treaty of Ghent (Dec. 24, 1814) England, theoretically at least, failed to relinquish what she regarded as one of her "maritime rights." If war is measured by its results, then surely this instance is a good argument on the futility of war as a means of adjusting international differences.

Impressment was a practice to which the English themselves submitted only with extreme reluctance. It was regarded by England's statesmen in 1812 as the only means by which the war vessels of that nation could be properly manned for the war against Napoleon. The unpopularity of this practice in England is reflected in the debate on the Press Law which took place in the House of Peers in September, 1814. This measure, while it was admitted to be necessary, was passed with great difficulty,5 surely, not a very secure position for a ministry which had entered upon war to compel a foreign nation to accept a practice scarcely tenable at home. For this reason it is hard to understand why England showed such readiness to enter upon another war, besides the one which she was waging against Napoleon, and particularly at a time when her resources had been taxed to the utmost by twenty years of almost continual warfare. Indeed this inquiry becomes more pertinent, when it is remembered that the American war was continued even more vigorously after May 30, 1814, when the Treaty of Paris brought a cessation to the European hostilities, and thus removed the cause for which the practice of impressment had been deemed necessary. United States at that time was a state of comparative insignificance, and the counter-contention that as she was the first to declare war, thereby becoming the aggressor throughout, is very far from the truth. Jefferson and Madison were both "pacifists." It was only after their policy had failed that a new generation of Republicans awoke the country to the sense of that failure. The United States was forced to accept a war for which at that time, there was no honorable alternative. That Mr. Madison was the "tool of Napoleon," the position assumed by such papers at the "Times" and "Courier" and not repudiated by the government, is a point of view utterly inconsistent with the facts. Better said that Mr. Madison was the "victim of Napoleon" as the story of the Macon Bill No. 2 shows only too well. A further consideration of the facts illustrates the American President's desire for peace.

Shortly after the declaration of war which was hastened by the submission of the Henry Papers to

^{1 &}quot;Further Memoirs of the Whig Party," Lord Holland, p. 159.

² Cf. Conditions attending Repeal of the Stamp Act in 1765. This was brought about by Rockingham and that element in the Whig Party which favored the American colonies. George III appealed to this party in order to have carried into effect his ideas on the Regency question. Thus the issue which brought into power a ministry favoring America, related primarily to English rather than to American interests.

³ Annals of Congress, 13th Cong., Vol. III, p. 1428, 1429.

⁴ Ibid, p. 1427.

⁵ The preamble was defeated by a vote of 76-55, and on one of the clauses the government had a majority of only one vote. "Letters and Despatches of Lord Castlereagh," 3d Series, Vol. II, p. 104.

Congress, President Madison instructed Mr. Russell, then the American minister in London, to stipulate for an armistice. Accordingly, in August, 1812, he attempted to arrange with Lord Castlereagh an armistice to begin in 60 days on the following conditions: (1) Repeal of the Orders in Council; (2) Discontinuing the impressment of persons from American vessels and restoring citizens of the United States already impressed; (3) the United States will pass a law prohibiting the employment of British seamen in the commercial or public service of the United States. These terms, eminently fair and conciliatory, were refused by Lord Castlereagh, the Secretary for Foreign Affairs who added, "I cannot refrain on one single point from expressing my surprise, namely that as a condition preliminary to even a suspension of hostilities the government of the United States should have thought fit to demand that the British government should desist from its ancient and accustomed practice of impressing British seamen from the merchant ships of a foreign state, simply on the assurance that a law shall hereafter be passed to prohibit the employment of British seamen in the public or commercial service of the United States the British government cannot consent to suspend the exercise of a right upon which the naval strength of the Empire mainly depends. . . . " 6 As this attempt on the part of the United States failed, Mr. Monroe was again in-structed by President Madison to try and arrange for a suspension of hostilities. In his letter to Sir John B. Warren of July 27, 1812, he said, "I am instructed to inform you that it will be satisfactory to the President to meet the British government in such arrangements as may terminate without delay the hostilities which now exist between the United States and Great Britain." 7 Such evidence would seem to indicate that President Madison's attitude was very far from being one of hostile aggression. The next point to be considered is why England went to war, and more particularly why she continued it after the necessity for impressment had ceased, as it had, after the conclusion of peace with France, and after Napoleon had retired, for the time being, from an active part in European politics.5 The war was carried on with new vigor on England's part, in spite of the fact that the need for impressing seamen no longer existed. If we analyse the situation further, there appears evidence of a fragmentary but tangible character which certainly suggests, if it does not prove, what the real motives of England were in prosecuting this war against America.

Talleyrand on his return to France, after his residence in America, made the statement that the United States must ultimately connect itself with the country from which it sprung, and the fulfillment of this prophecy was no doubt looked for in England. Naturally, the latter nation observed

with interest the course of events following the overthrow of the Federalists, for the political situation in America contained great possibilities. Without tracing here the causes which had created in New England a strong English party totally out of sympathy with the administrations of Presidents Jefferson and Madison, it is important to consider how far the disaffection in this section influenced the English government in the position it assumed towards President Madison and the Republican party. That the disunion sentiment which existed in New England in 1812 and indeed prior to that time and from which even Daniel Webster was not free, 10 was looked upon by England as an opportunity for regaining at least a part of the territory lost in the previous war, there is ample ground for believing. At all events, matters there were being carefully followed. Referring to the conditions in New England, Erskine, the English ambassador, wrote to Canning on March 15, 1809, stating that "the differences and jealousies between the Eastern and Southern states would inevitably tend to a dissolution of the Union which has been for some time talked of and has, of late, as I have heard, been seriously contemplated by many of the leading people in the Eastern Division." 11 The reluctance of the English government to submit the Henry Papers to Parliament, and Lord Liverpool's explanation regarding these papers is convincing evidence that the situation in New England was being carefully watched with a view to turning it to good advantage when the proper moment should arrive. Captain Henry was sent in February, 1809, by Sir James Craig, the Governor of Canada, into New England for the purpose of keeping the Canadian government informed on the activities of the Federalists in that section. On May 5, 1812, Lord Holland in the House of Lords pointed out the improbability that Sir James Craig would have so employed Henry without instructions from his government, or transmitting to it the communications he had received; and he adverted to the fact that when Henry claimed his reward he presented a memorial to the Office of Lord Liverpool, referring to Sir James Craig for his conduct, and had in consequence received a letter from Lord Liverpool, the prime minister, recommending him to Sir George Prevost, the successor of Sir James Craig, for a valuable office in Canada. 12 In answer to this, Lord Liverpool replied, "that the government had no knowledge of the employment of the person in question, until many months after the transaction. It was true that a person named Lavater, going in 1808 from Canada to the United States on his own business, had, of his own accord, opened a correspondence with the governor of Canada for the purpose of affording information, and his Lordship justified this proceeding by a detail of the menacing attitude with respect to the British possessions assumed by the United States. Sir James

⁶ Cobbett's "Political Register," Vol. XXIII, pp. 20, 25, 48, 54.

⁷ Ibid, January 7, 1815.

⁸ He had been sent to the island of Elba.

⁹ Lord Holland's "Reminiscences," p. 39.

¹⁰ See Webster's Letters, Van Tyne Collection: A speech prepared vs. the Enlistment Act, but never delivered.

¹¹ Parl. Blue Book, 1812, XV, p. 379.

¹² Hansard's Debates, Vol. XXIII, p. 11ff.

Craig sent Henry thither in February, 1809. Much of what appeared in the papers was false and unfounded; but as far as the authentic instructions went, he must contend that the directions were not for exciting discontent. . . . With respect to the remuneration of Captain Henry, as he had a recommendation from Sir James Craig, backed by some very respectable persons in London . . . he had held it his duty to act as was mentioned in the correspondence with Sir George Prevost. It was not afterwards deemed consistent with delicacy to say anything which might in the least have reflected upon the charcater of Sir James Craig, who had returned home from his government under mortal distemper, and had survived but a few months." 12

It is important to remember that when Captain Henry was sent into New England, Great Britain and the United States were at peace, and important negotiations for settling the existing differences between the two countries were pending. In these circumstances Captain Henry's mission was unquestionably a breach of the law of nations. As Sir James Craig recalled Henry when he understood that the negotiations were taking a favorable turn, this proved, as the Earl of Lauderdale pointed out, 14 that Craig knew he had been violating the law of nations. However that may be, Lord Liverpool's unconvincing explanation of this unhappy affair taken in connection with other events happening in his administration, would seem to indicate a course of procedure which becomes at once coherent and intelligible. Through the publicity given to the Henry letters, the Federal party in New England assumed, in the minds of Englishmen, an importance which was out of all proportions to its real strength-a state of feeling which was undoubtedly encouraged by the English Press. Thus we find in Cobbett's Political Register the following statement: "In my er letters I took great pains to endeavor to inuce your Royal Highness to distrust the statements in the public prints as to the power of the English party in the United States. I assured you that the venal press in Englandwas engaged in promulgating a series of deceptions with regard to the opinions of the people of America" 15 (Letter addressed to the Prince Regent). And again, "I verily believe, that Perceval entered on the war, and that it was afterwards continued, under the impression that the States were ready to divide, and that a part of them were ready to join this country against the Federal government. That such was the general belief in this country was notorious. The mischievous falsehood had its rise in the disappointment and malice of the Massachusetts Noblesse, who are by both countries

to be fairly charged with being the chief cause of the war." 16 The following illustrations indicate the attitude of England toward the Federalists in New England immediately before the war. The favor shown to New England merchants by the English government when the "embargo" was in force was, in effect an invitation to American citizens to break the laws of their country under a public promise of British protection. On April 11, 1808, instructions were sent to the commanders of British ships of war and privateers not to molest neutral ships "which should engage in an illicit trade, without bearing the customary ship's document and papers." 17 Also on the 26th of October, 1813, the British government issued an order in Council authorizing the governors of the British West India Islands to grant licenses to American vessels for the importation and exportation of certain enumerated articles; but in the instructions accompanying the order, it was expressly provided, that "whatever importations were proposed to be made from the United States of America, should be by licenses, confined to the ports in the eastern states exclusively. . . . " 18

In spite of the denial of the Liverpool government (which had succeeded the Perceval ministry) regarding imperialistic designs in America, one is inclined to believe, after a further consideration of the facts, that Cobbett's opinion, as noted above, was not entirely the result of political spleen, or an obsession of the mind.

In the British declaration of war presented in the House of Commons, February 3, 1813, it was specifically stated that "No desire of conquest or other ordinary motive of aggression has been or can be with any color of reason, in this case imputed to Great Britain." 19 Whatever the intention of the ministry may have been at the outset, it is evident that its subsequent course entirely contradicted this statement. The seizure of all Maine east of the Penobscot, including many islands off the coast which were held on the ground that they were British territory under the Treaty of 1783, was certainly not in accordance with the intentions professed in the declaration. This was affected possibly, with the expectation that those inhabitants of Maine who had lately sworn allegiance to His Majesty 20 could be depended upon for their support. Likewise Pakenham's assault on New Orleans before the news of the Treaty of Ghent had reached the United States, coupled with the fact that English commissioners were instructed to try and settle questions of boundary on an "uti possidetis" 21 basis, is a strong argument that territorial aggrandizement was very

¹³ Hansard's Debates, Vol. XXIII, p. 11.

¹⁴ Hansard's Debates, Vol. XXIII, p. 23.

¹⁵ Cobbett's Political Register, August 8, 1812: Cobbett at this time was in Newgate prison charged with "seditious libel," and was engaged in fighting for the liberty of the press. He was well informed in matters relating to America, where he had spent many years, and the fact of his imprisonment shows that he was quite capable of embarrassing the government.

¹⁶ Ibid, June 3, 1815.

¹⁷ Annals of Congress, 13th Cong., Vol. III, p. 1462.

¹⁸ See the proclamation of the Governor of Bermuda, dated January 14, 1814; the instructions from the British Secretary for Foreign Affairs, dated November 9, 1812. (Quoted, Annals of Congress, 13th Cong., Vol. III, p. 1464.)

¹⁹ Hansard's Debates, Vol. XXIV, p. 363 ff.

^{20 &}quot;London Times," February 11, 1815.

^{21&}quot; Status quo ante bellum" was the basis on which it was finally agreed to negotiate.

much in the minds of the English ministry. Indeed, Wellington's letter to Lord Liverpool, November 9, 1814, is conclusive on this point: "I have already told you and Lord Bathurst that I feel no objection in going to America, though I don't promise myself much success there. . . . Why stipulate for 'uti possidetis?' You can get no territory; indeed, the state of your military operations, however creditable, does not entitle you to demand any. . . . If you had territory, as I hope you will soon have New Orleans, I should prefer to insist upon the cession of that province as a separate article, than upon 'uti possidetis' as a principle of negotiation." 22 This letter indicates that the government had plans regarding America which it was anxious to have carried out by no mediocre general, and secondly, it implies that there was to be an attack on New Orleans which, if successful, would have placed England in permanent possession of that important territory, provided the American commissioners could have been persuaded to treat on an "uti possidetis" basis. Wellington's suggestion was to the same end.23

Indeed the attempt to capture New Orleans, taken in conjunction with Lord Castlereagh's desire to have the peace negotiations conducted on an "uti possidetis" basis, are matters which deserve a more detailed consideration. Adams in his "Life of Gallatin" shows very clearly from the Castlereagh correspondence that it was Lord Bathurst's plan, if the Americans should assent to the "uti possidetis" basis, to give the United States, Castine and Machias then held by the British, and claim Michilimackinac and Fort Niagara and the northern angle of Maine. It is likewise possible that the invasion of Louisiana Not until was conceived with similar intent. November 26, 24 1814, did the British commissioners definitely agree not to insist on the basis of "uti possidetis" as a sine qua non, and the British government was so disappointed and irritated at its failure to win this point that it considered seriously the advisability of sending Wellington to America to conduct the campaign. Inasmuch as the only points of importance held by the British at the beginning of the negotiations were Forts Michilimackinac and Niagara, and as the Americans held Fort Amherstburg and the adjacent country, it is difficult to understand why Lords Bathurst and Castlereagh were so anxious to treat on an "uti possidetis" basis when they had apparently so little to gain. In view of these facts it seems probable, as may be inferred from the extract of Wellington's letter quoted above, that the English ministry entertained hopes of gaining Louisiana and that General Pakenham, instructed in their schemes, was sent out to take New Orleans at any cost. There was not sufficient time between November 26, the date on which the English commissioners at Ghent agreed

not to insist on the "uti possidetis" basis, and December 25, the date of the arrival of Pakenham at New Orleans, to acquaint the latter with the failure of Castlereagh's plan to have the negotiations conducted on a basis, which, if the battle of New Orleans had been successful, would have been most advantageous to the English cause.²⁵

But the Liverpool ministry committed itself still further, as we have already intimated, by continuing the war with America after peace 26 had been made with France. If the United States had gone to war to aid Napoleon, and if the practice of impressment had been necessary for the successful prosecution of that war, why could not England then have made peace "without the sacrifice of her maritime rights or without an injurious submission to France." 27the two reasons assigned by the ministry for entering the war. In other words, although the original causes were eliminated by the Treaty of Paris, the conflict was continued with new energy.28 In the Regent's speech, delivered in the House of Lords on November 8, the ministry professed to be desirous for peace, but again laid itself open to the charge of insincerity by its choice of language. In commenting on this speech in the House of Lords on November 24, the Duke of Norfolk said, "The speech of the Prince Regent . . . stated the anxious desire of His Royal Highness to put an end to hostilities with America; and if such was the desire of the government they would naturally refrain from every unnecessary expression which was calculated to irritate instead of producing reconciliation. In the speech it was stated that the Americans had been the unprovoked aggressors. . . . There were reports too, that the war was carried on, not for the support of our maritime rights or of any great principle. but merely for the aggrandizement of our territories in that country.29 But there is additional evidence respecting the insincerity of the British ministry for peace which caused Mr. Monroe to write to the commissioners at Ghent, stating that it appeared to the President that the war on England's part had "a new object." 30

²² Letters and Despatches of Lord Castlereagh, 3d Series, Vol. II, p. 88.

²³ For further information see Letters and Despatches of Castlereagh, 3d Series, Vol. II, p. 169 ff.

²⁴ Annals of Congress, 13th Cong., Vol. III, p. 1399.

²⁵ In the diplomatic negotiations preceding the war, England, acting on behalf of Spain, tried to make the United States give up her claims to the Floridas. Had the United States acquiesced, it is not improbable that England would have become possessed of this territory in return for the part she played in restoring the Bourbons to the Spanish throne. This would have placed the United States between a British Canada and a British Florida and Louisiana—a project which had been formerly suggested by George III himself during the Revolutionary War. (See Corr. of Geo. III and Lord North, Vol. II; also Cobbett's Political Register, Jan. 4, 1812.) (See H. E. Egerton's "British Colonial Policy," p. 228.)

²⁶ Treaty of Paris, May 30, 1814.

²⁷ Hansard's Debates, XXIV, p. 363 ff, Declaration of War.
28 American commissioners were in London at this time trying to arrange terms.

²⁹ Hansard's Debates, Vol. XXIX, p. 494.

³⁰ Correspondence of Monroe to the Commissioners at Ghent during July and August, 1814.

There appeared in the "Courier" on June 2, 1814, a speech delivered in the House of Commons on the evening before, and attributed to Sir Joseph Yorke, one of the Lords of the Admiralty: "Sir Joseph Yorke observed that although one great enemy of this country, Buonaparte, had been deposed, there was another gentleman whose deposition was necessary to our interest, he meant Mr. President Madison, and with a view to that deposition a considerable naval force must be kept up, especially in the Atlantic.' A few quotations from the "Times" of the last two weeks of April, 1814, reflect a similar sentiment of uncompromising hostility. "It is understood that part of our army in France will be transferred to America. . . . " "The American government is in point of fact, as much a tyranny (though we are far from saying it is so horrible a one) as was that of Buonaparte; and as we firmly urged the principle of no peace with Buonaparte, so to be consistent with ourselves we must in like manner maintain the doctrine of no peace with James Madison. . . . " " Can we doubt that a vigorous effort on our part will annihilate the power of a faction, alike hostile to Britain and fatal to America? Is not the time propitious for winning back at least the sounder and better part of the Americans with the country from whence they sprung?" ⁸¹

Again in the same paper a few months later: The ill-organized association is on the eve of dissolution; and the world is speedily to be delivered of the mischievous example of a government founded on a democratic rebellion." ⁸² Such was the language, as Cobbett says "Of the favored and pat-

ronized part of the British press."

These observations indicate that England was largely influenced by expectations of territorial aggrandizement in the War of 1812, 33 and that her insistence on preserving the right of impressment was only a pretext for deeper schemes. The acute political situation in New England offered every facility for the promotion of such a policy as I have tried to indicate existed. Had such a policy been even temporarily successful, it could hardly have succeeded in procuring "the lasting tranquility of the civilized world" 34 an opinion which, to-day, finds verification on both sides of the Atlantic by those who recognize the hopes and aspirations of the American nation.

Expansion of Roman Power to the End of the Republic BY PROFESSOR TENNEY FRANK, BRYN MAWR COLLEGE.

The Teaching of Roman History. IV.

Predarwinian Roman history was fond of interpreting Rome's expansion in Hegelian terms. But if the spirit of a nation works itself out in some mystic fashion "over the heads of men," the historian finds his occupation of estimating causes and defining results quite futile. Hegelianism, therefore, did not long retain its popularity after the days of scientific research. At least in his picture of Caesar's conquests, Mommsen modified the doctrine of "what ever is, is right" into something suspiciously like "whoever does, does right." According to "Mommsen's law," which Mr. Adams has recently discussed,1 Caesar and other Roman conquerors were instruments of the superior Roman civilization in its legitimate absorption of peoples still in "political nonage." After Darwin it became the fashion to look upon Rome's growth as illustrating the doctrine of survival, "red in tooth and claw." It was assumed that Rome and Carthage must clash by the very law of nature, and that the less fit must necessarily go under. Later the influence of economic studies tended to define this clash in terms of national mercantilism, especially since modern nations assumed the burden of directing competition and of furthering "dollar diplomacy. ' In political history this tendency has frequently been interpreted in the comprehensive philosophy of Treitschke, which maintained that a state was in duty bound to create and maintain full opportunities of development for its citizens, regardless of rules, and commonly accepted ethical doctrines. This theory, made in the land of research, has been adopted even unconsciously in a vast number of studies in Roman history, and constantly asserts itself whenever research articles are hastily culled by makers of popular histories. Even the ubiquitous Rassenkampf protrudes into this field, though the Romans were extremely obtuse in matters of race prejudice; and I doubt not that the newly discovered supersaturation theory will soon invade the field; but that at least will easily be routed.

Now it is particularly the history of Rome's expansion which has invited the hypotheses of the generality-monger, partly because Rome's history is far enough removed to permit of a detached analysis, partly because there is a certain logical sequence in the facts presented. Rome's expansion, however, is not a single phenomenon created by nature for the benefit of the philosopher. It is the result of a series of unattached experiments in government undertaken now by

³¹ Quoted from Cobbett's Political Register, January 7, 1815.

³² Cobbett's Pol. Reg., January 7, 1815.

³³ This point of view becomes stronger when it is considered that the British Commissioners at Ghent were constantly seeking additions to Canadian territory, e.g., Northern Maine and a large portion of the N. W. territory. See Dept. Corresp. Annals of Congress, 13th Congress, Vol. III, p. 1321.

³⁴ Proclam. of the Admiralty Office, April 30, 1814.

¹ The Monroe Doctrine and Mommsen's law, 1914.

a monarchy, now by a democracy, now by an aristocracy. And all the passions and instincts of human nature found play in the arena. Much greed there was and not a little generosity; at times the state bullied its neighbors, at times it played the gentleman. Usually it earned the name of observing its contracts, but not always. In short it will be time to write a philosophy of history that will explain the facts of Rome's growth when a satisfactory science has been created out of the psychology of the individual, but hardly before. Meanwhile the student of Rome's territorial expansion will do well to avoid generalizing formulae, and study the particular facts that are of importance in each epoch.

The group of people that inhabited Latium seems for centuries to have been an inert body politically, until in fact, about the middle of the fourth century, B.C. Then a ferment released latent forces and within a century made the tribe master over Italyan area at least a hundred times that of the original tribe. In another century the tribe was lord of the Mediterranean world from the Straits of Gibraltar to the plateau of Anatolia. Of a long-continued period of quiescence and narrow confinement, archaeology speaks in fairly clear terms. The civilization that preceded the Etruscan immediately north of Latium was Villanovian, and not Latin; and south of Latium the tribe did not reach far enough in the early days to fall under the direct influence of the Greek civilization represented by Cumae. Its aversion to the sea, its deep-seated love for the soil, its peculiar penchant for regularity and strict formality lead us to believe that those early centuries were times of no great political turmoil.

How Rome gained the ascendency over the rest of the Latin tribe we shall probably not learn. Livy himself warns us that his first six books are mere legend, and the man who would sift the kernel of history out of legend should compare Thidrech's saga with Jordanes, or the Chanson de Roland with Einhard. Pais has sufficiently illustrated the danger of reconstructing history from tradition. less to say, if the various parts of the Latin tribe had fought each other as continuously as early legend would have us believe, the Latins could hardly have saved their fertile plain from the envious tribes that looked down hungrily from the bare limestone ridges of the Sabine and Volscian Mountains. Rome's ascendency in Latium was probably not acquired by sweeping some fifty cities out of existence, as tradition would have it. What was more important in the work than Rome's own aggression, was the pressure from invading enemies which compelled the tribesmen of the Latin plains to seek fortified hills. This evolved a number of city-states out of a unified tribe hitherto well scattered in a number of village communities. Among the city-states thus developed. Rome gained doubly fast in population because of her peculiarly advantageous position; and gain in population naturally entailed increase of military power and prestige.

About 342 B.C., Rome, without regard for the rest of the Latins, formed an alliance with the far

distant Capua, a city fully as populous as Rome, and, like her, hard pressed by troublesome mountain tribes. We do not know the real purposes of this alliance, but since it was made by the Roman senate and involved Rome in a war with Capua's enemy, we may believe that it contemplated a united defense of an exposed frontier. However the passage of Roman troops through their boundaries caused disaffection among the Latins and eventually a revolt against Rome, which led at once to civil war and presently to the subjection of all Latins to Rome. The importance of this war lay not so much in the extension of territory as in the nature of the government that Rome created for the conquered. The Roman Senate, still under the control of patricians, though liberalized by no small admixture of influential plebeians, organized a new federation with rare wisdom and self-control. prudence and liberality of these men was due in large measure Rome's peculiar capacity to expand. The nearer cities were accorded Roman citizenship while allowed autonomy. Cities further removed or unfriendly were also allowed autonomy, but with certain privileges temporarily subtracted. This form of citizenship was considered probationary, so that it contained an invitation to good behavior. Colonies of friendly agriculturists were planted on the frontier, and for these, settlers were drawn not only from Rome, but also from the allies. The colonies, therefore, served both as a cementing force within the state and a garrison against the enemy. Finally, subjected tribes which could not be incorporated into the state were attached by a firm alliance. No tribute was exacted, little territory was confiscated at conquest, autonomy was granted, but Rome insisted upon a contribution of troops for the federal army. And, since Rome directed the army, this amounted to a recognition of Rome's suzerainty in foreign affairs. Obviously this federation, with its various classes, readily adapted itself to the needs of the members. Combining liberality with firmness, it soon attracted the attention of neighboring tribes who saw that membership was a safeguard against brigandage. Its prestige therefore increased rapidly.

The incorporation of Central Italy into the federation resulted from the contest with Samnium. The Samnite wars grew out of a simple misunderstanding about the boundary line. Each side strengthened itself as far as possible by alliances until all of Italy from the Arno to Magns. Graecia was involved, and consequently when Rome won through better organization and more dogged pertinacity, she could incorporate the greater part of Italy in her federation.

There can be little doubt that the mainspring of the early expansion was a desire to organize in favor of peace rather than to conquer for the sake of exploitation. In fact, the spirit of law-abidingness that later made Rome the world's lawgiver, early expressed itself in a rule of international justice which forbade wars of aggression. The same spirit, indeed, demanded that exact justice be meted out to any neighbor which played at aggression to Rome's hurt. Hence, Rome seldom compromised when in-

jured. She carried out her wars until the initiating party admitted her principle or surrendered its

foreign policy to Rome.

extremity of Italy.

However, with the emergence of democracy in the early third century, a new spirit is noticeable in Rome's behavior. To an unusual degree Rome now took the aggressive in a war that brought Pyrrhus against her, and again in the first contest with Carthage. When the Greek city of Thurii-formerly a dependent of Tarentum-appealed for a place in Rome's federation, Rome's popular assembly, which had very recently won full legislative power, overrode the instructions of the Senate and granted the Tarentum protested, declared war, and presently secured the services of the Epirote general, Pyrrhus. The new hot-headed democracy at Rome found itself, with little experience at leadership and diplomacy, involved in a war with Greek phalanxes, and the war became famous for Roman defeats. The aged democratic leader, Appius Claudius, had to plead with the disgruntled senate not to abandon the war and make peace with a victorious enemy.

Roman stubbornness again won the day and Pyrrhus was compelled to desert his paymaster. When the day of settlement came, the senate fortunately still had administrative affairs largely in its control, and it was the Senate that made the terms of peace with the South Italian Greeks. As usual, it sought for peace and a lasting organization in preference to immediate material gain. It asked the Greek cities, even those that had been captured during the war, to enter the Roman federation on terms of formal equality. Of course they became subject to Rome, since she was the director of the federation; on the other hand they were accorded very unusual terms in that they were excused even from army service. At the end of this war the federation extended from the Apennines to the very southern

Rome's arrival in the south brought her into contact with new neighbors that soon presented tangled problems. Messana was an independent city in Silicy, less than two miles from the Italian coast. Control of Messana meant a possible control of the commerce of the Sicilian Straits. Hence Carthage, which already owned two-thirds of Sicily, coveted possession of the city, for Carthage, unlike Rome, engaged extensively in maritime trade. Now that all the cities of Southern Italy had entered the Roman federation on excellent terms, Messana realized that it might escape the grasp of Carthage and the consequent exactions of Carthage by doing likewise. She therefore appealed to Rome for admission and rid herself of the Punic garrison already in the city.

The appeal awakened long discussion at Rome. The senate again opposed expansion and for plausible reasons. Acceptance of Messana would clearly involve the state in a war the end of which could not be foreseen, and the costs of the war must be defrayed by extra tribute levied on the land of which senators were large holders. Sicilian land was not wanted for colonization: Romans would not hear of settling so far from home. Nor did Roman farmers

desire to see Sicilian grain brought into their market. Finally there was ever present the conviction that war bred popular leaders whose prestige threatened the very life of the oligarchical Senate. The Senate, therefore, supported the old aristocratic policy employing the federation as an instrument of peace and solidarity rather than of exploitation and adventure. However, the democratic assembly once more went its own way, and voted the request. We are told that ambitious popular leaders and chauvinistic politicians spoke to the populace of national glory, increase of empire, and even of booty to be gained by the soldiers. Popular sovereignty at Rome was never far from autocracy, and the purest democracy was nearest imperialism.

The war which ensued, lasted for twenty-four years, involving a frightful loss of life and undreamed-of expenditures. When it was over even the Senate, burdened with a heavy state debt, was willing to abandon the ancestral policy of exempting new acquisitions from tribute. It took possession of Punic Sicily on the terms that Carthage had held it, that is, practically as a state domain from which rental could be collected. The Sicilian cities became not the allies and "equals" of Rome, members of a defensive federation. They were Rome's property to be exploited to the advantage of her treasury; and Sicily had to be held by a standing army against revolt and invasion. Rome was now an imperial democracy. The impulsive decision of the popular assembly had changed the very nature of the Roman constitution.

The Second Punic War was, according to Greek as well as Roman sources, a war of revenge directed against Rome by the Barcids, and Rome had to face it whether or no she wished to. A word, however, may be in place regarding the treaty of the Ebro which furnished the pretexts. It is more than likely that the Ebro-treaty was first advocated by Marseilles, whose trading ports in Spain were one by one being seized by Carthage, and included in the Punic mare clausum. Marseilles was at this time Rome's best friend. She was too weak to resist Carthage alone, so in order to save northern Spanish commerce for the open-door area, that is, for her own possible advantage, she sought Rome's support. She could not directly appeal to Rome's commercial interests, since Rome had none worth mentioning. But she could report to Rome the gossip her merchants heard in Spain, that Hasdrubal was training a strong Spanish army for the sake of invading Italy; and that was an argument which induced Rome to act. The result was a treaty in which Hasdrubal promised (doubtless to Marseilles, and) to Rome not to cross the Ebro in arms. This treaty was, therefore, meant to mark the limits of Punic aggression upon Marseillaise trade, and did not in anyway define Rome's "sphere of influence."

The actual war between Rome and Carthage broke out when, and only when, Hannibal was ready, and it need not concern us what the pretexts were. During the war Rome occupied Spain purely for strategic reasons, and she was compelled for the same

reasons to continue in occupancy after the war. She made it a dependency of practically the same kind as Sicily, once more taking over a legacy of imperial-

ism from Carthage.

Rome's entry into Greece and Eastern politics furnishes one of the most fascinating topics in her long history, and the story illustrates in striking fashion how quickly the performance may fall short of the promise in international politics. Two inheritors of Alexander the Great, Philip V of Macedonia and Antiochus III of Syria, were at the end of the third century B.C., busy dividing the Eastern Mediterranean cities between them. The weak states that were being plundered asked Rome for help, particularly against the worse aggressor, Philip. This time the populace, overwhelmed by the distresses of the Punic war, voted against the appeal. The Senate, however, under the influence of the masterful Scipio, urged participation in the Greek coalition of defense. It was understood from the first that Rome's aid must be a free gift and that she should not be indemnified by any increase of territory East of the Adriatic. The inducements that appealed to Scipio were therefore not directly material, but they were nevertheless sufficient. At this very time the admiration for Greek literature and art was boundless at Rome, and there were many Senators who, in their enthusiasm for things Greek would gladly heed any appeal for aid from Greece. Then, too, membership in a Greek coalition would once and for all secure Rome recognition as a civilized nation, and lift the Romans from the opprobrious position of barbari. There was also a very strong political argument. Philip was a disagreeable neighbor. He was at this very time breaking treaties and subjugating neutrals without provocation. And obviously the state that breaks its contracts must become a pariah among nations. The reader has an example near enough at hand. Rome, therefore, being a no distant neighbor of Philip's, had a legitimate place in the defensive alliance against him.

Rome at first played a subordinate part in the war, satisfied to follow the initiative of Pergamum and Rhodes. But it soon became apparent that Rome's army was the real force in the coalition; and Philip, after his defeat, insisted on treating through the only power that could actually guarantee the enforcement of the terms. Thus it came about that although Rome received no portion of the territory taken from Philip, she became the chief guarantor of the document, which liberated a score of Greek common-wealths and defined the limits of Philip's empire. And when Antiochus III dashed northward to seize a part of the Asiatic territory that Philip had been forced to give back, it was Rome that became the spokesman of the smaller nations, and issued a kind of "Monroe Doctrine" in a wide-spread decree that "Henceforth no Greek shall be subject to anyone." To support that pronouncement, the coalition was forced into a war with the great Antiochus, and now of course Rome had to bear the brunt of the contest. Antiochus was driven back to Syria, and the disputed territory divided between Pergamum, Rhodes, and a number of free cities. The Scipios now supposed their work done. Rome, having freed the Greeks and checked the despots that threatened the Hellenic cities, withdrew her armies to Italy to let the Greeks exercise their new-found liberties.

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The task was too great. At least a hundred separate states had been directly affected by that "Congress of Vienna," and, needless to say, not a few were dissatisfied. These began to ask whether Rome actually cared to support the Eastern settlement since she had not claimed for herself an acre of territory in the East. Presently the Scipios fell from power, and largely because of their eastern policy. Sentimental politics were expensive and brought no solid return in cash. The disgruntled populace accordingly flocked to the support of Cato, a man who believed in favorable balance sheets.

Under the new regime, eastern disputes—and very many arose-began to be handled in summary fashion. The Senate tacked on a "Platt amendment to its "Monroe Doctrine," in an edict commanding Achaea to consult Rome's wishes in its foreign relations. This edict, of course, made Achaea a Roman protectorate, and before long the theory began to take shape that Rome's eastern allies—the states that had once honored Rome by accepting her in their coalition-were after all subject allies bound to recognize Rome as suzerain in foreign affairs. Perseus, the new King of Macedonia, first revolted against this rigid regime. He was deposed and his kingdom cut up into republics. These republics were overturned in 181 by a pretender, who in turn was deposed by Rome. Now Macedonia became a province, a result which the Scipios had neither desired nor foreseen.

The half-century which followed was a period of extreme vacillation. The Senate felt that its very existence was being endangered by the acquisition of a subject empire, for Spain in particular was demonstrating the need of permanent standing armies and military rule not contemplated by the old oligarchic constitution, while the responsibilities assumed in the East were dragging the Senate ever further into entangling disputes. At times the Senate tried to shirk the obligations which only accumulated. At times it would act with severity, though in general refusing to extend the state's domain. allowed itself to be insulted for fifteen years by the Egyptian king. In Achaea it punished disobedience, but refused to assume the burden of government. Carthage it crushed in a fit of jealous fear, but again avoided extension of territory so far as it possibly could. It aided Marseilles, a faithful ally, to subdue neighboring mountain tribes, but took no territory for Rome. Nor was the democracy more definitely expansionistic when it came into power. The Gracchi, to be sure, believed in colonizing and utilizing for state purposes the domains of the state. but their program was mainly concerned with internal improvements, and seems to contain no reference to enlarging the empire. There was some growth during the period, but very little due to Rome's efforts. The Kingdom of Pergamum was accepted by legacy, but only after its boundaries had been reduced. In Southern France a strip of territory was won for a road to Spain, but Auvergne was not taken though it might well have been claimed by right of conquest. And the Jugurthine war which brought in the province of Numidia was forced upon a reluctant state. Apparently imperialism was a dead issue throughout the latter half of the second

century B.C.

With Pompey, expansion of a new kind began. The Gracehan system of tax gathering had raised up a strong group of capitalists that profited from public contracts. A public contractor meant, then as now, a contractor in politics. So when the revenues of Asia were menaced by the raids of Mithradates and Tigranes, it is not surprising that the capitalists advocated the pacification of the Orient and the inclusion into Roman provinces of as large a part as possible. This financial power found an excellent tool in Pompey, a man who associated with the capitalists and absorbed their doctrines, a man, likewise, who highly respected militarism and who little comprehended the spirit of Rome's past and her constitution. So Pompey was sent East, ostensibly to check the invaders, but actually to pacify the Oriental world and lay it open to the financial operations emanating from Rome. He did his work The province of Asia was enlarged; thoroughly. Cilicia and Bithynia were reorganized, Pontus was taken from Mithradates, and by a slight juggling of legal phraseology, all of Syria, the old Kingdom of Antiochus, was declared Roman territory and shaped into a new province. The contract system of tax gathering was extended-in modified form-over all, so that the revenues of the state were nearly doubled, and the operations of the capitalists enormously increased.

Caesar's invasion of Gaul was the first candid act of aggression during the Republic carried to farreaching consequences. We may even assert with reasonable certainty that the act was instigated by personal motives rather than by large considerations of state. To be sure, Caesar, well-read in the story of Marius, fully appreciated-perhaps over-estimated—the necessity of establishing a new and safer boundary of empire along the Rhine. He also knew the value of Gaul's natural resources, and measured the worth of Gaul's soldiery more accurately than his contemporaries. But he must have been clearsighted enough to see that the pressing need of the state was at that time for internal peace and efficient government and not new acquisitions. student who follows the early career of Caesar as exemplified in his support of the revolutionary element, in his plans to seize Egpt and to thwart Pompey, in his campaign in Spain, and in his consulship administered almost solely for personal ends, must recognize that Caesar was still an ambitious and lawless politician at the time when he procured the Gallic command. We may also be reasonably sure that he had laid his plans for a complete conquest of Gaul before he set foot in his province. That his

plans were far-reaching from the first, appears from his negotiations with Ariovistus before the war, his demand for a five-year term, his unusual act in securing the province for himself even during the year of his consulship to prevent the appointment of an interloper, his early levy of new legions without the permission of the Senate, the diplomatic move by which the Helvetians were enveigled into hostilities when they might simply have been compelled by force to remain at home, and his encampment upon Gallic soil after the first summer's campaign was over.

If, however, Caesar opened his expansionistic program in a manner that recalls the triumph-hunter, the statesman emerged as soon as he set his hand to the task of organizing what he had conquered. He at once abandoned the short-sighted methods of his day and reverted to the precedents set by the great men of the fourth century. Though avowedly a successor of the Gracchi, he distinguished himself by rejecting at once the Gracchan system of taxgathering which Pompey had imposed upon the East at the behest of the equites. With the Oriental principle of dominium in solo provinciali he would have nothing to do. The native Gauls were left in full rights of ownership. He even proved by his liberal bestowal of citizenship and high offices of state upon many Gauls, that he looked upon the provincials not as subjects to be exploited for the profit of the conqueror, but as possible candidates for full Roman citizenship in the near future. Subsequently, as dictator he worked along the same lines everywhere. He abolished the Gracchan-Pompeian tax-system in the East, substituting an organization that might protect the provincials against their master; and in his colonization he worked toward the unification and amalgamation of the whole empire rather than the elevation of Rome and Italy. In a word, the new empire was to be a territorial state in which every part should be able to attain to its full capacity of Roman rights and privileges.

But even Caesar was incapable of restoring the real life and meaning of citizenship. He was bound by the consequences of Rome's over-growth. From the day that the democracy abandoned the old federational policy and adopted the Oriental system of acquiring subject-peoples, which could not be assimilated into the body politic, the necessity of an Oriental despotism became ever more pressing. And Caesar, by his own ambitious conquests, only forced himself to take the final step. Thus, despite sacred rules, a restraining constitution, a consciously obstructing aristocracy, the Roman people, led now by glamour, now by instinct, now by treasonable leaders, had stumbled on unwittingly and falteringly into ever-increasing dominion until the unwieldy empire required by very necessity a military autocracy.

BIBLIOGRAPHY.

Mommsen is and must still be used. Even pupils in the secondary schools read him with avidity, but the teacher will do well to guide the reading and correct impressions. The story of Rome's expan-

sion in Italy is somewhat distorted by Mommsen's reactions to the nationalistic movements of his day. The war of Rome and Carthage is staged somewhat too dramatically as an inevitable clash of races. Too much is attributed to mercantilism during the second century. The work of the Gracchi is treated with undue animosity; and, needless to add, Caesar is all too much transfigured into the personification of Rome's destiny. These are but a few of the points that call for warning. In general one fact must constantly be kept in mind in reading not only Mommsen but other historians of the continent. The diplomacy of modern Europe has become inconceivably intricate. For a thousand years a halfdozen powers growing up side by side, crowding each other for space, prodded on by dynastic ambitions, egged to race prejudice by every conceivable method. have made the game of diplomacy a complicated maze. Witness the events of the last few months! It is almost beyond human capacity for one brought up in that atmosphere to read the story of early Roman political experiments in its true simplicity. Surely continental historians have attributed all too many modern ministerial concoctions to the farmerstatesmen of that old world. And unfortunately, American historians who might have read the story more simply have as yet produced little but secondary school books, which are largely based upon the continental works in question. The safest handbook from which to gather the main facts is Niese, Römische Geschichte (4th ed. 1910). His interpretations may usually be disregarded. Heitland, The Roman Republic (three vols. 1909), may be read with profit, though much of the first volume is out of date. Heitland's analysis of political movements is often keen, perhaps at times too shrewd and cynical. De Sanctis, Storia dei Romani, vol. II., gives the best treatment of the Samnite wars. Meltzer, Geschichte der Karthager (vol. III. 1913, by Kahrstedt), gives an inadequate discussion of the Punic wars. For Rome's contact with the Greeks. consult Holm, History of Greece (judicious in its discussion of Rome); Beloch, Griechische Geschichte, vol. III.; Niese Griech. und Maked. Geschichte, vol. III.; Colin, Rome et la Grèce; Bevan, The House of Seleucus; Bouché-Leclercq, Histoire des Lagides; Ferguson, Hellenistic Athens. Greenidge, A History of Rome, vol. I., is excellent for the Gracchan period. Holmes, Conquest of Gaul, 2nd ed., and Jullian, Histoire de la Gaule, vol. 111., discuss Caesar's work. Ferrero, The Greatness and Decline of Rome, frequently refers to Rome's expansion in the first three volumes. On this topic at least he is a very unsafe guide. As a few books of reference I would add, Rostowzew, Zur Geschichte des Römischen Kolonates; Reid, The Municipalities of the Roman Empire; Bouché-Leclercq, Leçons d'histoire romaine: Taubler, Imperium Romanum; Kromayer, Antike Schlachtfelder; Chapot, La province romaine d'Asie; and Tenney Frank, Roman Imperialism (MacMillan, 1914), an attempt to discuss the causes and consequences of Rome's territorial growth during the republican period.

A LOST MANUSCRIPT.

A. I. A.

In 1891, while upon a visit to Madrid, M. Edouard Cat prepared a list of documents dealing with the Spanish occupation of northern Africa, which could be found in the Royal Archives. Among these was a two-hundred page manuscript entitled, La Conquista y Guerra de Tunez, and its author was identified by M. Cat as one Arcos, a soldier in the army of Charles V in his campaign of 1535. M. Cat published in his work on that campaign and also in his Mission Bibliographique en Espagne, the titles to each of the seventy-five chapters, besides the introduction. He spoke warmly of the manuscript, declaring that it should be published in toto as it was the fullest and best account of the Tunisian campaign. In this he no doubt was right.

In 1904, a student in the Graduate School of Harvard University started to prepare a thesis upon Charles V and Tunis, and came upon the two little volumes of M. Cat. He at once saw the significance of M. Cat's statements and hunted up a correspondent in Madrid. After some delay he got in communication with this correspondent who attempted to hunt up the manuscript in question. M. Cat had made a careful memorandum of the library number, and the American student thought that there would be no difficulty about finding the work of which M. Cat had spoken so glowingly. To his surprise, the report came back that the manuscript could not be located at all. But the American student did not give up hope. He placed a copyist on guard, and for the next four or five years he tried to keep in communication with some one at Madrid in the slender hope that the missing link would turn up. Strange to say, it did, being discovered by a copyist under another library number in a distant quarter of the library. After its discovery it was an easy matter to have the sheets photographed and the plates brought to America, where they are now reposing in the Archives of Harvard University. Meanwhile the student in question is hoping that M. Edouard Cat's wish of so long ago may be realized at last, and that the whole manuscript may soon be available for all who care to read it.

SCHOOL AND CIVIC LEAGUES IN VIRGINIA.

(Continued from page 318.)

schools. It strives to mould public sentiment, to blaze new paths, and to show communities how they may help themselves.

"Enlightened public sentiment and community effort can alone bring about improved living conditions.

"We wish these organizations to be community clubs. No more significant movement is going on in our State than the building up of these community groups in country neighborhoods.

"In the mill village of Schoolfield, Pittsylvania County, a league of 236 members is holding meetings of social, educational and civic interest, and every one is busy. The town, homes, yards, playground, roads and school, parents and children show the influence of this splendid organization."

"The course outlined for adults was as follows:

"Text-book, 'From Kitchen to Garret."

"Pamphlets, 'The Country School of To-morrow,' 'Benefits of Improved Roads,' 'Health Bulletins of the State Board of Health,' 'Poultry Raising,' 'Industrial Work in Negro Schools,' 'Reports from State Board of Charities and Corrections.'"

In a number of other States a similar movement is taking place.

Thirtieth Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

Chicago, December 29, 30, 31, 1914, Headquarters Auditorium Hotel

PROGRAM.

TUESDAY, DECEMBER 29.

9 a.m. Meeting of the Council. 10,30 a.m. Ancient History.

Chairman, Prof. A. T. Olmstead.

Robert W. Rogers, Drew Theological Seminary, "Fresh Light Upon the History of the Earliest Assyrian Period."

William L. Westermann, University of Wisconsin, "The Mediaevalist and the Decline of Ancient Culture.

W. D. Gray, Smith College, "Hadrian and His Reign." Wallace E. Caldwell, Fellow in Ancient History in Columbia University, "The Greek Attitude Towards Peace and War."

10.30 a.m. Mediaeval England. Chairman, Prof. Albert B. White.

Bertha H. Putnam, Mount Holyoke College, "Maximum Wage Laws for Priests after the Black Death."

James F. Baldwin, Vassar College, "Legal Practice in the Fifteenth Century.

James F. Willard, Colorado College, "A Reform of the Exchequer Under Edward I."

Norman M. Trenholme, University of Missouri, "Municipal Aspects of the Rising of 1381 in England."

1 p.m. Luncheon. 2 p.m. American History.

Chairman, President Andrew C. McLaughlin.

Max Farrand, Yale University, "One Hundred Years

St. George L. Sioussat, Vanderbilt University, "Tennessee and National Political Parties, 1850-60."

Henry Barrett Learned, Washington, D. C., "Cabinet Meetings Under Jackson."

Alfred Holt Stone, Dunleith, Miss., "The Factorage System of the Southern States."

2 p.m. Napoleonic Europe.

Chairman, Prof. William E. Lingelbach.

Henry E. Bourne, Western Reserve University, "The Men who Helped to Make the Napoleonic Regime.

R. M. Johnston, Harvard University, "An Approach to a Study of Napoleon's Generalship."

Victor Coffin, University of Wisconsin, "The Senate of the First Empire.'

Guy Stanton Ford, University of Minnesota, "Boyen's Military Law.

8.15 p.m. Fullerton Hall, the Art Institute of Chicago. Andrew Cunningham McLaughlin, president of the American Historical Association, "American History and American Democracy."

Reception, the Art Institute of Chicago. [Michigan Boulevard and Adams Street.]

WEDESDAY, DECEMBER 30.

9 a.m. Meeting of the Council. 9 a.m. Meeting of Committees. 10.30 a.m. Modern England.

Chairman, Prof. Edward P. Cheyney.

Edward R. Turner, University of Michigan, "The Privy Council of 1679."

Henry R. Shipman, Princeton University, "The House of Commons and Disputed Elections.'

Herbert C. Bell, Bowdoin College, "British Commercial

Policy in the West Indies, 1783-93." Clarence C. Crawford, University of Kansas, "The Suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act and Revolution of 1689." 10.30 a.m. Europe and the Orient.

Chairman, Prof. Dana C. Munro.

Frederick Duncalf, University of Texas, "Some Effects of Oriental Environment in the Kingdom of Jerusalem."

Albert H. Lybyer, University of Illinois, "The Influence of the Rise of the Ottoman Turks Upon the Routes of Oriental Trade."

Theodore F. Jones, New York University, "The Turco-Venetian Treaty of 1540.'

Robert H. Lord, Harvard University, "The Winning of the Amur: A Chapter in the History of Russo-Chinese Re-

2 p.m. Annual Meeting.

8.15 p.m. General History. Fullerton Hall, the Art Institute of Chicago.

Chairman, President Andrew C. McLaughlin.

Frederick Jackson Turner, Harvard University, "The Significance of Sectionalism in American History

Charles W. Colby, McGill University, "The Earlier Relations of England and Belgium."

James Henry Breasted, University of Chicago, "The Eastern Mediterranean and the Earliest Civilization in Europe.

Samuel N. Harper, formerly lecturer in Russian History and Institutions in University of Liverpool, "The Russian Nationalists."

10 p.m. Smoker. The University Club.

THURSDAY, DECEMBER 31.

10.30 a.m. Conference.

Chairman, Prof. H. Morse Stephens.

Paper by George M. Dutcher, Wesleyan University, "The Opportunities and the Needs of Napoleonic Research in

Discussion by Professors Lingelbach, Coffin, Ford and Johnston.

10.30 a.m. Mediaeval History.

Chairman, Prof. George L. Burr.

Earle W. Dow, University of Michigan, "Roger Bacon, 1214-94." William E. Lunt, Cornell University, "Papal Finance and

Royal Diplomacy in the Thirteenth Century: An Episode."
A. Edward Harvey, University of Chicago, "Economic Self-interest in the German Anti-clericalism of the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries.'

Edgar H. MacNeal, Ohio State University, "The Feudal Noble and the Church as Reflected in the Poems of Chrestien de Troyes."

10.30 a.m. Conference of the Historical Societies.

Chairman, Dr. Otto L. Schmidt.

Dr. Otto L. Schmidt, the Chicago Historical Society. Report of the secretary, Prof. Solon J. Buck.

Report of the Committee on Co-operation of Historical Departments and Societies. Dunbar Rowland, Mississippi Department of Archives and History.

James A. Woodburn, Indiana University, "Research in State History at State Universities.'

Discussion by E. C. Banks, University of Texas, and C. W. Alvord, University of Illinois.

Lawrence J. Burpee, Ottawa, Canada, "Restrictions on the Use of Historical Materials."

Discussion by George N. Fuller, Lansing, Mich.; M. Quaife, Wisconsin State Historical Society; Victor H. Paltsits, New York Public Library.

(Continued on page 332.)

Periodical Literature

MARY W. WILLIAMS, PH.D., EDITOR.

Bibliography of the European War

[The following bibliography lays no claim to completeness. It aims merely to present for the convenience of the reader a list of some of the most valuable periodical literature upon the war.]

Special War Numbers.

Asiatic Review, October 1; Scientific American, September 5; World's Work, September and November.

CAUSES

Boulger, Demetrius C., "Antwerp and the Scheldt," Fortnightly Review, October; Brooks, Sydney, "Why Does Germany Hate England?" Independent, November 2; Carlisle, Lord Bishop of, "The Inner Meaning of the War," Nineteenth Century and After, October; "Chronology of the Diplomacy that Led to the War," World's Work, September; Dillon, E. J., "Causes of the European War," Contemporary Review, September; Ferrero, Guglielmo, "The European Tragedy," Atlantic Monthly, November; Francke, Kuno, "The Kaiser and His People," Atlantic Monthly, October; "Germany and the Laws of War," Edinburgh Review, October; "German University Teaching and the War," Edinburgh Review, November; Görtz. Generalleutnant von, "Deutschlands Erhebung," Deutsche Revue, September 1; Harnack, Adolf von, "Germany and the Present War," Educational Review, November; Hart, Albert Bushnell, "Historical Roots of the War"-a series of ten articles to be published in the Outlook, the first or "The Unification of Germany," appearing in the issue for September 23; Hart, Albert Bushnell, "Why the Nations Fight," World's Work, September; A Historian, "The War." popular Review, October-December; Marcks. Erich, "Bismarck und unser Krieg," Nationale Kundgebung, September; Markoff, A., "Why Russia Has Gone to War with Germany," Contemporary Review, September; Merkel, O. J., "The War and Germany." Forum, November: Ogden, Rollo, "The Alliances that Made the War," World's Work. September; Shuster, W. Morgan, "The Breakdown of Civilization," Century Magazine, November; Sloane, W. M., "Teuton Against Slav," Independent, August 10; Usher, Roland G., "The Reasons Behind the War," Atlantic Monthly, October; Valentin, Veit, "Was wir seit 1870 Erstrebt Haben," Nationale Kundgebung, September; Vinogradoff, Paul, "Russia and the Present War," Edinburgh Review, November; Whitman, Sidney, "Germany's Obsession," Fortnightly Review, October.

RESOURCES AND EQUIPMENT OF THE COMBATANTS.

Huidekoper, Frederic Louis, "The Armies of Europe," World's Work, September; MacTavish, Newton, "War Time in Canada," Canadian Magazine, October; Eckstein, Frederick, "Canada's Part in the War," World's Work, November; Yate, A. C., "The British Indian Army in Europe," Asiatic Review," October 1; "Tommy Atkins' in the Field: His Characteristics in This and Other Wars," World's Work, November; Furlong, Charles Wellington. "The Men Behind the French Guns," World's Work, November; "With a Russian Dragoon Regiment," World's Work, November; Furlong, Charles Wellington, "Turcos and the Legion," World's Work, November; "The Navies of Europe," World's Work, September; Marvin, George, "Cavalry," World's Work, November; Grahame-White, Claude, "Aircraft in the

War," Fortnightly Review, October; Cleveland, Reginald McIntosh, "How the Motor Affects War," World's Work, November; Carver, T. N., "The European Food Situation," Review of Reviews, November; see also the Scientific American for September 5 for statistics regarding the subject.

NARRATION AND DESCRIPTION.

A. M. M., "History of the War," Fortnightly Review, October; Bullard, Arthur, "The Story of the War," Outlook (current numbers); "Chronicle of the War by Days," Independent (current numbers) "Diary of the War on the Russian Frontier, July 30 to October 23, Independent, November 2 (to be continued); "England's Control of the Sea," World's Work, November; Literary Digest (current numbers); Nordmann, Charles, "Impressions d'un Combattant—Notes de Route," Revue des Deux Mondes, September 15; "Record of Events in the War," Review of Reviews (current numbers); "The Russian Campaign," World's Work, November; "The Rush to Paris," World's Work, November; Simonds, Frank H., "Germany on the Defensive," Review of Reviews, November; Vivian, E. Charles, "The Opening of the Eastern Campaign," Asiatic Review, October 1; Woodhouse, Henry, "The War in the Air," World's Work, November.

THE DEFENSE OF THE COMBATANTS.

Hymans, Paul (member of the mission sent to the United States by the King of the Belgians), "How and Why Belgium Drew the Sword," Outlook, September 30; "France," Educational Review, November; Jagemann, H. C. G. von. "Germany's Struggle for Existence," Outlook, September 16; Nasmyth, G. W., "The Case for Germany," Outlook, September 9 and 14; "Germany," Educational Review, November; Kawakami, Kiyoshik, "Japan and the European War," Atlantic, November; Ohlinger, Gustavus, "Kiao-Chau," World's Work, November; Kennan, George, "The Spiritual Uplift in Russia," Outlook, October 14; "Politicus," "Russia and the War," Fortnightly Review, September.

THE PROBABLE RESULT OF THE WAR.

Butler, Nicholas Murray, "The Great War and Its Lessons," Educational Review, November; Butler, Nicholas Murray, "The Work of Reconstruction," Advocate of Peace, November; Barker, Ellis, "The Ultimate Ruin of Germany," Nineteenth Century and After, September; Dickinson, W. H., "The War and After," Contemporary Review, September; King, Joseph, "The War: Before and After," Contemporary Review, September; Norman, Henry, "Armageddon—the Forging of a Great Peace," Scribner's Magazine, October; Giddings, Franklin H., "The Larger Meanings of the War," Survey, November 7; "Outis," "Armageddon—and After," Fortnightly Review, October (continued).

MISCELLANEOUS.

Huidekoper, Frederic Louis, "How to Read the War News: the A, B, C of Military Art," World's Work, October; "The Naval A, B, C," World's Work, October; "The Day's Work of a Soldier," World's Work, November; Oskison, John M., "What a Modern Sea Fight is Like," World's Work, November; "A New Role for Submarine Mines," World's Work, November; Nasmyth, George W., "What I Saw in Germany," Advocate of Peace, November; Carter, Charles Frederick, "Atrocities in War," World's Work, November; Dosch, Arno, "The Red Cross of the Warring Nations," World's Work, September; "Men Who Control the Destiny of Europe" (biographical sketches), World's Work, September; Nolan, R. S., "Some Experiences and Impressions of a Civil Prisoner of War," Nineteenth Century and After, October; Stoddard, T. Lothrop, "Italy and the War," Review of Reviews, November.

MAPS, ILLUSTRATIONS AND CARTOONS.

The following-named periodicals are particularly strong in this class of illustrative material: Current Opinion; Harper's Weekly; Literary Digest; Outlook; Review of Reviews (the November issue contains a special set of German cartoons); Scientific American (a good colored map of Europe appeared in the number for September 5); World's Work.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

A recently organized association is the New Orleans History Teachers' Association, founded about a year ago. Its purpose is to study the problems of history feaching, particularly in public high schools, and to seek to encourage teachers and pupils in every way. The president is Miss Eleanor Riggs, of the Sophie B. Wright Girls' High School Meetings are held quarterly. The topic for the January, 1915, meeting is "Use of Sources in Class Work, Value of Sources to High School Pupils."

The eighth annual meeting of the Ohio Valley Historical Association was held at Charleston, W. Va., November 27-28, 1914. The following program was carried out:

Friday, November 27, 9.30 a.m. Presiding, Professor James Morton Callahan, West Virginia University; addresses of welcome—for the State, Governor H. D. Hatfield; for the local committee, Ex-Governor W. A. MacCorkle; address on the "Work of the State Department of Archives and History," Dr. H. S. Green, State Historian, Charleston, W. Va.; "Incidents in the Pioneer, Colonial and Revolutionary History of the West Virginia Area," J. T. McAllister, Hot Springs, Va.; "Early Pioneer Experiences at North Bend," Miss Jean Howell, Cincinnati, O.; "John Floyd and Oregon," Professor Charles H. Ambler, Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Va.

Twelve o'clock, noon-luncheon served by the local comnittee.

Friday, November 27, 2.00 p.m. Presiding, Professor A. B. Hulbert, Marietta College; "The Tories at Fort Pitt and What Became of Them," Professor W. H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus, O.; "General Wilkinson's First Break with the Spaniards," Professor I. J. Cox, University of Cincinnati; "Some Observations as to the Population of the Ohio Valley During the Eighteenth Century," Professor J. E. Bradford, Miami University, Oxford, O.; "Early Land Grants in Southeastern Ohio," Professor H. W. Elson, Ohio University, Athens, O.; "Social Conditions in the Mountain Counties of West Virginia and Eastern Kentucky," Professor J. R. Robertson, Berea College, Berea, Ky.; "West Virginians vs. West Virginia, 1861-63," Professor J. C. McGregor, Washington and Jefferson, Washington, Pa.

Four p.m., reception of members and friends by Ex-Governor W. A. MacCorkle and Mrs. MacCorkle, at their residence, "Sunrise," on the South Side.

Six p.m., association dinner, arranged under the auspices

of the local committee; presiding toastmaster, Professor Charles Theodore Greve, College of Law, University of Cincinnati; dinner talks—personal experiences in Europe at the opening of the present war.

Saturday, November 28, 9.30 a.m. Presiding, Professor Henry W. Elson, Ohio University, Athens, O.; "Development of Transportation on the Monongahela," Superintendent W. Espey Albig, Bellevue, Pa.; "Sectionalism and Transportation Routes," Professor A. B. Hulbert, Marietta College; "Ohio River Improvement," Captain Wm. H. Hall, Parkersburg, W. Va.; "Washington and the Western Waterways: Antecedents of the Ohio-Lake Erie Ship Canal," Hon. Burd S. Patterson, secretary Western Pennsylvania Historical Society, Pittsburgh.

"The History of the Scotch-Irish in America," by Professor Henry Jones Ford, of Princeton University, is announced for publication in February, 1915, by the Princeton University Press. The same publishers also announce for early publication an English translation by Charles C. Mierow, of "Jordanes," "The Origin and Deeds of the Goths." This will be the first English translation of an important source for early German and late Roman history.

A series of Vespucci reprints, texts and studies, is announced for publication by the Princeton University Press. The series will include some documents in fac-simile, texts and translations of the most important papers and bibliographical, textual, critical and historical studies upon the documents. The series is being published by the Silas H. McCormich Publication Fund of the University Library.

A very successful meeting of the Nebraska History Teachers' Association was held at Omaha on November 5, in connection with the Nebraska Teachers' Association. The attendance was unusually large, and the meeting was one of the most successful in the history of the organization. Arrangements were made ot hold a special meeting in the month of May, 1915. The program for the last meeting was as follows: "The Mendacity of History," by Professor James W. Thompson, of the University of Chicago; "Illustrated Lecture on Eastern South America," by Professor C. E. Persinger, of the University of Nebraska. A discussion followed upon what kind of history should be taught and how it should be taught in the seventh and eighth grades. A description of the methods of work in the schools of Omaha, Fremont and Lincoln was made by Miss Eva Demoss, Mrs. M. D. Blakeslee and Miss Mayme Jackson, respectively.

The officers of the association are: President, Prof. H. W. Caldwell, University of Nebraska; secretary-treasurer, Miss Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

The Iowa State History Teachers' Association met at Des Moines. Iowa, on November 5, 1914, for the adoption of a permanent organization and constitution. The program of the meeting provided for a paper upon "The Iowa Association of Teachers of History, Government and Economics—Its Aims and Needs," by Professor H. G. Plum, of the University of Iowa, and "Source Material in the Iowa State Library and Historical Department," by Professor J. E. Brindley, of Iowa State College.

The American Peace Centenary Committee, having charge of the celebration of the one hundredth anniversary of the signing of the Treaty of Ghent, in July, 1914, issued a prospectus of their proposed activities. Since that time President Henry S. Drinker, of Lehigh University, chairman of the committee, has issued a statement to the effect that in view of the European war, the celebrations at Ghent, in England and in Canada must be postponed, and that it seems doubtful whether any national movement in this country will be deemed advisable.

The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland held a joint meeting with the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the same territory at the College of the City of New York, on Saturday morning, November 28, 1914. The chairman was Miss Sarah A. Dynes, of the State Normal School of Trenton, N. J. The general topic of discussion was "Are the Colleges and Universities Neglecting their Duty to History in the Secondary Schools?" Dr. William Fairley, of the Commercial High School of Brooklyn, made a report from the committee on "The Training of History Teachers for Secondary Schools." A discussion was carried on by Professor Henry Johnson, Teachers' College; Dr. Anne Bush MacLear, Hunter College; Professor S. P. Duggan, College of the City of New York; Miss Florence E. Stryker, Montclair Normal School; Professor A. W. Risley, State College for Teachers; Professor A. E. McKinley, Temple University, and others. In the afternoon luncheon was taken at Fraunce's Tavern, followed by an address upon the history of the tavern and a pilgrimage to historic points below Wall Street under the guidance of the City History Club.

The regular fall meeting of the Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government, was held at Tacoma, Wash., in connection with the meeting of the Washington Educational Association. At that time the following program was offered: "Lord Acton on History," Prof. O. H. Richardson, University of Washington; "The Five Monopolies," Adella M. Parker, Broadway High School, Seattle, Wash.; "Comparative Significance of the War of 1812 and the Spanish-American War," C. A. Spragere, assistant superintendent of Public Instruction, Washington; "The Quarter Century," T. L. Stiles, City Attorney, Tacoma, Wash.

The spring meeting of the association will be held at Spokane in April, to which all teachers interested in the

study of government and history are invited.

The officers are: Mr. W. L. Wallace, president, The Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Wash.; A. L. Kaye, secretary-treasurer, The North Central High School, Spokane, Wash.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

(Continued from page 329.)

2 p.m. The Archivists. Chairman, Victor H. Paltsits.

Annual report of the Public Archives Commission.

Legislation for archives.

Principles of classification for archives.

Waldo G. Leland, secretary of the American Historical

Association, cataloguing of archives.

[The conference will be organized as a round table for the discussion of the above topics, and a cordial invitation is extended to all persons who can contribute information thereon to participate.]

2 p.m. Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

Chairman, Prof. I. J. Cox.

R. B. Way, Beloit College, "English Relations in the Northwest, 1789-1794."

W. J. Trimble, North Dakota Agricultural College, "The Agrarian History of the United States as a Subject for Research."

"The Genesis of the Kansas-Nebraska Act." [See article by Prof. F. H. Hodder, in Proceedings of Wisconsin Histori-

cal Society, 1912, pp. 69-86.]

Discussion led by Frank H. Hodder, University of Kansas, and P. Orman Ray, Trinity College. Volunteers are invited to take part in the discussion, and will be furnished with a resume of the points the leaders intend to present.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

Davis, William Stearn. A Day in Old Athens. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1914. Pp. 241. \$1.00.

Under this engaging title Professor Davis has given us a very useful reference book especially adapted to classes in secondary schools. It is not simply a description of the city of Athens, nor of what might be seen with an able cicerone by the most indefatigable American tourists possessed of the grim determination to "do" the city in 24 hours. It is rather a description of Athenian life in the

fourth century B. C.

There may be surprise at first that the author has chosen the year 360 B. C. instead of some date in the Age of Pericles for the hypothetical time of the visit. The choice is justified by the reasons given in the preface, especially by the one that Athens was architecturally less perfect in the earlier period. There are, however, several chapters that furnish material to illustrate the Age of Pericles, namely: "The Ecclesia of Athens;" "An Athenian Court Trial;" "The Great Festivals of Athens;" "Country Life Around Athens; "Trade, Manufactures and Banking;" "The Peiraeus and the Shipping;" "The Agora and its Denizens."

Other chapters treating mostly of the social and industrial conditions are: "The Physical Setting of Athens;" "The First Sight of Athens;" "The Athenian House and Its Furnishings;" "The Women of Athens;" "Athenian Costumes;" "The Slaves;" "The Children;" "The Schoolboys of Athens;" "The Physicians of Athens;" "The Funerals;" "The Armed Forces of Athens;" "The Afternoon at the Gymnasia;" "Athenian Cookery and the Symposium;" "The Temples and Gods of Athens." There are two maps and some 25 well-selected illustrations.

The study of this book at the end of the course, if the teacher does not prefer to take it by sections, will give pupils a clear and vivid account of Athenian life that will

stay with them.

VICTORIA A. ADAMS.

Calumet High School, Chicago.

MINNS, ELLIS H. Scythians and Greeks. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons; Cambridge: The University Press, 1913. Pp. xl + 720. \$20.00.

This work is a monument of learning. In it is summed up a great mass of information upon the archaeology and history of lower Russia from the paleolithic period to the time of the great migrations. Its interest and value are as great for the mediaeval historian as for the advanced student of ancient history. For this is the region where the great shocks were first felt that impelled some of the

migratory movements into western Europe.

Mr. Minns has found it necessary to extend his field of research from the Alps to China. He has made available for western readers much valuable work done upon the early history of this part of the world by Russian archaeologists. The amount of the material he has covered is enormous, and of a type which demanded high power of organization. The price of the volume and its local and scientific character may, unfortunately, prevent its purchase by schools and individual teachers. The author, who has so richly earned scientific recognition, should be induced to boil down his valuable results into a book of about 200 pages arranged for a wider audience and containing a few of the best of his many illustrations.

Mr. Minns has decided from a great deal of evidence, that the ancient Scythians north of the Black Sea were nomads from eastern Asia, who had been propelled westward early in the first millennium B. C. The earliest objects of Scythic manufacture show much dependence upon Assyrian art. In the seventh and sixth centuries the Scythians came under the influence of Ionian art, developing an Ionian-Scythic style with a distinct character and no little decorative merit. This Scythic style then spread westward into Hungary, and lived on continuously into the Christian era. In the Siberian Scythic art of the third century after Christ, Mr. Minns finds the forerunner of the Gothic art which the migrating barbarians brought into the Roman Empire.

It is impossible to give in a brief review any idea of the scope of this big work. It deals with geographic and ethnological questions in full, with sculpture, ceramics and the allied crafts, with the numismatics and the trade of the Euxine steppes. The scientific value of this book is very great.

W. L. WESTERMANN.

The University of Wisconsin.

Cross, Arthur Lyon. A History of England and Greater Britain. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1914. Pp. xiii + 1165. \$2.50.

We have here the fullest treatment of the entire field of English history in a single volume. As a college text-book for an elementary course, it would appear to be too bulky, with a treatment too full, and to the reviewer it seems that some of this fullness might have been dispensed with without real loss. Yet this abundance of material constitutes no serious defect so far as its serviceableness for high schools is concerned, and in this field it has great value for both teachers and pupils. Its apportioning of emphasis among the large units of the subject is excellent. To modern England, that is from 1485, 800 pages are given; to nineteenth and twentieth century England, 200 pages. It furnishes, especially in this later modern portion, a very much needed element for the supplementary reading of high school pupils. The suggestions for additional reading are generous, and will be of much help for teachers who will need, however, to work them over for high school pupils, for whom, doubtless, they are not designed and are not explicit enough. Seventy-two pages are devoted to an index which, with more than usual thoroughness, reveals the book. Thirteen full-page maps of good quality are supplied. The style has a lively quality, made piquant by many illuminating anecdotes, and holds well the interest of the reader. Serious errors seem very few, and the book will prove a trustworthy interpreter and guide to the general student in this field.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

Schurman. Jacob Gould. The Balkan Wars, 1912-1913.

The Stafford Little Lectures for 1914. Princeton: The Princeton University Press. Pp. 140. \$1.00 net.

From the mass of magazine articles and detailed books dealing with the various phases of the complicated Balkan situation, it is often difficult for the ordinary reader to get a clear and unbiased impression. Most of the recent books have a distinct bias toward some one of the Balkan States—in fact, many of them have been written to win the moral support of English-speaking people for the country of which the writer is a native. In Dr. Schurman's Lectures, the general reader will find a refreshingly clear account of the Balkan wars. It is not overloaded with military details, and the author has made a successful attempt to be fair to the various parties involved in the struggles. It will be found valuable to teachers and students, and is well worth purchasing for high school libraries.

Ohio State University.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

GULICK, SIDNEY L. The American Japanese Problem. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914. Pp. 349. \$1.75.

Dr. Gulick has made a notable contribution to an important national and international problem. He is well fitted for this task by a residence of more than a quarter century in Japan, and by his work as author of authoritative books on that country. The present book presents only part of the author's view of this problem, as he has reserved the suggestions that he wishes to make to the Japanese for another volume in Japanese.

Dr. Gulick's book may be divided into three parts of very unequal length. The first part, of two chapters, explains the problem as it appears to Americans, and especially to residents of California. The second part, practically the book, Dr. Gulick calls an "argument." He seeks to convince Americans that many of their views regarding Japan and the Japanese are wrong, and he explains the problem as he understands it. Some of these chapters deal with Misunderstandings; Illusions, yellow and white; Perils, yellow and white; Are the Japanese assimilable? The third part of the book, the conclusion, briefly outlines "A new American Oriental policy."

Dr. Gulick narrows the American Japanese problem chiefly to the problems growing out of the recent agitation in California. In urging that these problems must be treated from the American, not the California, viewpoint, that is, the national rather than the State point of view, Dr. Gulick is undoubtedly right. In actually treating the problems from the Japanese rather than from the American point of view, he is undoubtedly wrong. Except in the first two chapters, his quotations on American opinion regarding the problem are of an extremely partisan character. His criticism of the anti-Japanese sentiment of California (pp. 190-196) is more extreme than that policy, although he "heartily agrees with the fundamental postulate of California's general Oriental policy."

Dr. Gulick shows how little we understand the Japanese. He reviews the emergence of Japan from feudal oppression, showing how Japanese customs and laws are not easily comprehended in twentieth century America. He points out how little danger arises from the ownership by Japanese of less than 20,000 acres of land in California. He calls attention to our need of Japanese friendship, and the danger of arousing Japan against us by a narrow policy, based on the idea that the white race is superior to all

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others. He calls the yellow press the real yellow peril, and warns us that if we continue to believe in a yellow peril, which he considers an illusion, we shall arouse race hatred that will become a real yellow peril. Dr. Gulick says that he is not to be understood as favoring mixed marriages; yet he seems to the reviewer to argue for such marriages. In addition to other arguments, he asks if we would not be "great gainers by including Asiatic ore in this great

melting pot?"

Dr. Gulick does not treat the economic side of the problem as fully as one would expect. He believes that any danger from Japanese competition due to their lower standard of living and longer hours of labor, can be warded off by laws which limit the hours during which Japanese shall work. He advocates a restriction of immigration, not prohibition, applying equally to all countries. He suggests that the immigration of aliens from any country be limited to five per cent. of those from that country who are already naturalized American citizens, including their American children. He does not consider the effect upon our California labor supply of possible immigration from southern Europe to our west coast via the Panama Canal.

As Dr. Gulick thinks that "the present Oriental policy of the United States, as a whole is, in important respects, humiliating to the Oriental and disgraceful to us," he pleads for greater knowledge, greater charity and a solution of the problem in the spirit of brotherly love. It is to be regretted that so excellent a discussion of this great problem should have been treated as an "argument," and that Dr. Gulick's desire to convince his American audience should have made him appear, even in parts of his valuable book, as a partisan. R. L. ASHLEY.

Pasadena High School, Pasadena, Cal.

BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM SEPTEMBER 26 TO OCTOBER 31, 1914.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

American History.

Anderson, John A. Navigation of the upper Delaware. Lambertville, N. J. [The Author.] 33 pp. 50 cents. Baughman, Abraham J., editor. Past and present of Wyandot Co., Ohio. In 2 vols. Chicago: S. J. Clarke Pub. Co. \$18.00. ry, Thomas F. Four years with Morgan and Forrest.

Oklahoma City, Okla .: Harlow Ratliff Co. 476 pp. \$3.25.

Black, Samuel T. San Diego and Imperial Counties, Cal. In 2 vols. Chicago: S. J. Clarke Pub. Co. \$21.00. Buck, Solon J., compiler. Travel and description, 1765-

1865, together with a list of county histories, atlases and biographical collections. Springfield, Ill.: State

Hist. Lib. 514 pp. Privately printed.

Chapin, Howard M. Bibliography of Rhode Island bibliography. Providence, R. I.: R. I. Hist. Soc. 11 pp. 50 cents.

Compendium of history and biography of Minneapolis and Hennepin Co., Minn. Chicago: H. Taylor & Co. 384 pp. \$18.00.

Crawford, Marg. C. Social life in old New England. Boston: Little Brown. 515 pp. \$2.50 net.

Curtis, Edward S. Indian days of long ago. N. Y.: World

Book Co. 223 pp. \$1.00.

Dunning, William A. The British Empire and the United States. N. Y.: Scribner. 381 pp. \$2.00 net.

Fitch, William E. The first founders in America, with

facts to prove that Sir Walter Raleigh's lost colony was not lost [etc.]. N. Y.: N. Y. Soc. Order of Founders and Patriots of Am. 40 pp. Gratis to members.

Ford, George H. Historical sketches of the town of Mil-

1789-1881. Olympia, Wash.: State Lib. 340 pp. \$2.00.

Kuhus, Oscar. The German and Swiss settlements of colonial Pennsylvania. N. Y. and Cin.: Methodist Bk.

Concern. 268 pp. 75 cents net.

McIlvaine, Mabel, compiler. Reminiscences of Chicago in the forties and fifties. Chicago: R. R. Donnelly &

Sons. 137 pp. Privately printed.

Miller, Edward, and Wells, F. P. History of Ryegate, Vermont. St. Johnsbury, Vt.: Caledonian Company. 608 pp. \$3.50.

Morriss, Margaret S. Colonial trade of Maryland, 1689-1715. Balto., Md.: Johns Hopkins Press. 157 pp. (3½ pp. bibl.), \$1.00. Munk, Joseph A. Bibliography of Arizona. Los Angeles,

Cal.: Southwest Museum. 431 pp. \$3.50.

New Hampshire Province. Probate records of the Province of New Hampshire, Vol. 2, 1718-1740. Concord, N. H.:

N. H. Hist. Soc. 876 pp. \$3.00.

Pardee, William S. New Haven; its charter and amendative of the New Haven; Tuttle, Morehouse of the

ments, 1784-1914. New Haven: Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor Co. 62 pp. 50 cents.

B. M. Popular elementary history of New Mexico.

Cedar Rapids, Ia.: Torch Press. 186 pp. \$1.00 net. Roe, Alfred S. The Thirty-ninth regiment Massachusetts volunteers, 1862-1865. Worcester, Mass.: Regimental volunteers, 1862-1865. Worcester, Mass.: Regimental Vet. Assn. 493 pp. \$2.25.
Rose, Laura M. The Ku-Klux Klan; or invisible empire.

New Orleans, La.: L. Graham Co. 84 pp. 75 cents.
Sabin, Edwin L. Buffalo Bill and the overland trail
[etc.]. Phila.: Lippincott. 349 pp. \$1.25 net.
Sanchez, Nellie V. Spanish and Indian place names in California. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. 446 pp. \$2.00 net.

Skinner, Alanson. The Indians of Greater New York.
Cedar Rapids, Ia.; Torch Press. 150 pp. \$1.00 net.
Stevens, William O. The story of our Navy. N. Y.: Harper. 316 pp. \$1.50 net.
Tindall, William. Standard history of the city of Washington. Knoxville, Tenn.: H. W. Crew & Co. 600 pp.

\$15.00.

Vander Zee, Jacob. The Hollanders of Iowa. Cedar Rap-

ids, Ia.: Torch Press. 453 pp. \$3.00 net. Waters, Thomas F. Ipswich village and the old Rowley Road. Ipswich, Mass.: Ipswich Hist. Soc. 77 pp. 50 cents.

Ancient History.

Budge, Ernest A. T. W. Osiris and the Egyptian resurrection. In 2 vols. N. Y.: Putnam. \$10.50 net.

Case, Shirley J. The evolution of early Christianity. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 296 pp. \$2.25 net.

Coleman. Christopher B. Constantine the Great and Christianity. N. Y.: Longmans. 258 pp. (1144 pp. bibl.). \$2.00

De Rustafjaell, Robert. The stone age in Egypt. N. Y.: W. E. Rudge [218 William Street]. 87 pp. \$5.00. Havell, Herbert L. Republican Rome. N. Y.: Stokes.

564 pp. \$2.50 net.

Jastrow, Morris, Jr. Hebrew and Babylonian traditions.

N. Y.: Scribner. 376 pp. \$2.50 net.

Kuhn, Albert. Roma; ancient, subterranean and modern Rome. In 18 pts. Pt. 6. N. Y.: Benzinger. Each pt., 35 cents.

Montgomery, James A., editor. Aramaic incantation texts from X pur. Phila.: Univ. of Pa. Museum, 326 pp. \$5.00

Richardson, Ernest C. Biblical libraries; a sketch of library history from 3400 B. C. to A. D. 150. Princeton N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 252 pp. (61/4 pp. bibl.). \$1.25 net.

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